AMENDMENT UNDER 37 C.F.R. § 1.111

Application No.: 10/518,405

Attorney Docket No.: Q85416

REMARKS

Claims 1-6, 11 and 12 are all the claims pending in the application. Claim 13 is canceled.

Claim 2 is withdrawn as being directed to a non-elected species.

Claims 6, 11, and 12 have been amended to depend from claims 1 and 3-5, in view of the

withdrawal of claim 2. Claim 6 has further been amended to recite a pharmaceutically

acceptable carrier to distinguish the scope from that of claims 1 and 3-5. Support is found at

least at page 25 lines 7-17. Claims 11 and 12 are also amended to delete prevention of

conditions, to replace "those" with "said" and to delete various members of a Markush group.

Support for reciting muscle wasting disease in claim 11 is found at least at page 24, lines 14-17.

No new matter is added.

A. **Information Disclosure Statements**

The Examiner has not returned the PTO Form SB/08 that accompanied the Submission of

International Search Report filed December 17, 2004, possibly because copies of the references

were not submitted or transmitted by the International Bureau. Accordingly, submitted herewith

are copies of the references cited with the Submission of International Search Report. The

Examiner is requested to consider the references and return the PTO Form SB/08 signed and

initialed.

B. Election/Restrictions

The Examiner acknowledges Applicant's election with traverse of Group IV with the

selection of substituent Z as heteroaryl.

Attorney Docket No.: Q85416

AMENDMENT UNDER 37 C.F.R. § 1.111

Application No.: 10/518,405

The Examiner is thanked for rejoining amended claim 6, drawn to a composition of the

elected Group IV compounds and a pharmaceutically acceptable carrier or excipient, and claims

11 through 13 drawn to methods of prevention and treatment with same compounds.

With respect to the Restriction into Groups I-IX based upon the compound defined, the

Examiner asserts that the Restriction is correct because the claims of this National Stage

Application are not so linked as to form a single general inventive concept under PCT Rule 13.1.

Specifically, the Examiner states that the single general inventive concept shared by Groups I

through IX is that the compounds are all tetrahydroquinoline derivatives. However, the

Examiner states that the tetrahydroquinoline derivatives are not novel, citing Hayes et al. and

another reference.

According to the Examiner, Hayes et al. teach a tetrahydroquinoline derivative wherein

with respect to the instant formula (I) R1=NO2 or CN, R2=H, X=CH, m=0 and the Y-

 $N(R^9)[(CO)Z]$ equivalent is $C_2 \cdot C_{10}$ substituted alkyl. (See Hayes et al, US 5,925,527, 20 July

1999, columns 3 and 4.)

While Applicant does not further traverse this Restriction Requirement, Applicant

submits that the Examiner's understating of Hayes et al. (U.S. Patent No. 5,925,527) is incorrect.

The compounds of Formula I disclosed in Hayes et al. have Y-R1- as a substituent of the

tetrahydroquinoline moiety wherein Y is CO₂H, OH, SH, NHR⁷, C(O)NHR⁷, CH₂OH, CH₂NH₂

or CH₂NHR⁷. Therefore, Hayes et al. do not disclose the tetrahydroquinoline moiety substituted

only by CN or NO₂.

Attorney Docket No.: Q85416 AMENDMENT UNDER 37 C.F.R. § 1.111

Application No.: 10/518,405

Obviousness-type double patenting C.

Claims 1 and 3 through 6 are provisionally rejected on the ground of nonstatutory

obviousness-type double patenting as being unpatentable over claim 1 of copending Application

No. 10/522,553 (US 2005/0277660) in view of Hanada et al., (US 7,037,919).

This rejection is overcome by the submission of a Terminal Disclaimer.

D. Claim rejections - 35 U.S.C. § 112, first paragraph (enablement)

Method claims 11 through 13 are rejected under 35 U.S.C. 112, first paragraph, because

the specification, while being enabling for the treatment of androgen receptor-linked bone tissue

conditions, allegedly does not reasonably provide enablement for the "prevention" of any disease

or for the treatment of all androgen receptor-linked diseases.

The claims have been amended to remove recitation of prevention of conditions.

With respect to treatment of all androgen receptor-linked diseases, the Examiner states

that lack of enablement is clearly indicated in the instant disclosure on page 4, lines 6 and 10

which states that "..globally recognized compounds are yet to be created" and "..no such

compounds are vet to be created. The Examiner states that this statement demonstrates clearly

that the mechanism is by no means definite if the compounds affecting androgen receptor-linked

diseases are not yet known.

The Examiner also asserts that literature (or the lack thereof) within the relevant art also

supports this uncertainty, as only a single reference is cited in support of a quinoline derivative (a

quinolin-2-one) having anabolic effects on bone and muscle, as well as activity in a sexual

behavior model. The Examiner asserts that Miner et al make reference to possible quinoline

AMENDMENT UNDER 37 C.F.R. § 1.111 Attorney Docket No.: Q85416

Application No.: 10/518,405

derivative activity stating "...nonsteroidal selective androgen receptor modulators <u>may</u> be useful therapeutics for enhancing muscle, bone, and sexual function," and that this statement demonstrates clearly that the mechanism is by no means definite, and that further research effort would be needed to establish and confirm the treatments.

Accordingly, the Examiner concludes that the amount of experimentation needed to confirm and clearly establish the compounds of formula (I) as treatments for all the androgen receptor-linked conditions listed in claims 12 and 13 is considerable. The Examiner asserts that the working examples in the specification are consistent with this position in that the working examples stop at the androgen receptor binding activity, and fail to establish the desired link between androgen receptor activity and all the diseases of the disclosure.

With respect to treatment of androgen receptor linked diseases, the claims have been amended to recite osteoporosis, muscle wasting and male hypogonadism. These androgen receptor-linked conditions are clearly supported by the working examples in the specification.

Applicant further submits that the Examiner has misunderstood the disclosure of the present specification. That is, "... no such compounds are yet to be created ..." on page 4, lines 6 to 10 means -- no small molecular compounds as the present invention have been found --. The compounds affecting androgen receptor-linked diseases were also known in steroid compounds and the mechanism was also known, as is clear from Chapter 19 of the text book "Androgen Replacement Therapy of Male Hypogonadism". (copy submitted herewith) Also, Miner et al. only refer to nonsteroidal compounds. Therefore, it cannot be said from the disclosure of Miner et al. that the mechanism of the compounds affecting androgen receptor-linked diseases is indefinite.

AMENDMENT UNDER 37 C.F.R. § 1.111 Attorney Docket No.: Q85416

Application No.: 10/518,405

E. Claim rejections - 35 U.S.C. § 112, second paragraph

Claims 11 through 13 are rejected under 35 U.S.C. § 112, second paragraph, as being

indefinite for failing to particularly point out and distinctly claim the subject matter which

Applicant regards as the invention.

1. Claims 11 through 13 recite the phrase "treat those diseases" which allegedly

renders the claims indefinite because it is unclear whether the limitations preceding the phrase

are part of the claimed invention. The Examiner asserts that "those" is a term generally used for

counter distinction contrasting with something currently applicable or near. The Examiner

suggests Applicant use more standard terms such as "treat said diseases".

To further clarify the claimed invention, the Examiner's suggestion to replace "those"

with "said" has been adopted.

2. Claim 11, drawn to a method of preventing or treating wasting disease or

osteoporosis, is rejected based on the lack of clarity with respect to "wasting disease". The

Examiner recognizes that the disclosure indicates a group of conditions as "wasting diseases",

however claim 11 is drawn to treating "wasting disease" in the singular. The Examiner asserts

that the claim should appropriately specify the specific conditions that constitute the wasting

diseases for which treatment is enabled.

The claim has been further clarified by replacing the term "wasting disease" with the

phrase "muscle wasting."

In view of the above, reconsideration and allowance of this application are now believed

to be in order, and such actions are hereby solicited. If any points remain in issue which the

AMENDMENT UNDER 37 C.F.R. § 1.111 Attorney Docket No.: Q85416

Application No.: 10/518,405

Examiner feels may be best resolved through a personal or telephone interview, the Examiner is kindly requested to contact the undersigned at the telephone number listed below.

The USPTO is directed and authorized to charge all required fees, except for the Issue Fee and the Publication Fee, to Deposit Account No. 19-4880. Please also credit any overpayments to said Deposit Account.

Respectfully submitted,

Registration No. 30,951

SUGHRUE MION, PLLC

Telephone: (202) 293-7060 Facsimile: (202) 293-7860

WASHINGTON OFFICE

23373
CUSTOMER NUMBER

Date: October 11, 2007

19

Androgen Replacement Therapy of Male Hypogonadism

A. Wayne Meikle, MD

CONTENTS

Introduction
Overview of Physiology of the Testes
Goal of Androgen Therapy
Overview of Pharmacology of Androgens
Potential Benefits of Androgen Therapy
Precautions of Androgen Therapy in Aging Men
Other Considerations of Treatment of Androgen Deficiency
Summary of Androgen-Replacement Therapy
References

INTRODUCTION

Male hypogonadism is a relatively common disorder in clinical practice, particularly in aging men, and has significant effects on the fertility, sexual function, and general health of patients (1-8). Disorders of sperm and testosterone (T) production may be caused by primary, secondary, or tertiary hypogonadism. Some are relatively common and others are rare (9-11). In aging men, a tertiary-like deficiency leads to T deficiency, which affects about 20% of men by age 60 yr (5,12-14). In men with clinical manifestations of primary or secondary hypogonadism, deficiency of T can usually be treated effectively. Fertility in some men with primary testicular disease, such as Klinefelter's syndrome, is irreversible, but those with gonadotropin deficiency resulting in infertility can often be treated successfully (as reviewed in Chapter 24) (15-17). Although both T deficiency and infertility can be corrected using gonadotropin or gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) therapy in men with hypogonadotropic hypogonadism, this form of therapy is usually restricted to the management of infertility. Otherwise, androgenreplacement therapy is used to correct the chronic T deficiency. Thus, knowledge of the pathophysiology of hypogonadism is needed to plan and use appropriate hormonal replacement therapy in men with deficiency of T and sperm production.

This chapter will focus primarily on androgen-replacement therapy for T deficiency. Androgen-replacement therapy with injectable, oral, and (more recently) transdermal

From: Endocrine Replacement Therapy in Clinical Practice Edited by: A. Wayne Meikle © Humana Press Inc., Totowa, NJ

and injectable pellets preparations has been available to physicians for years. However, an orally active preparation with reliable efficacy may contribute to more widespread acceptance and use of T therapy by many men.

OVERVIEW OF PHYSIOLOGY OF THE TESTES

Pulsatile secretion of GnRH by the hypothalamus stimulates the release of gonadotropins (luteinizing [LH] and follicle-stimulating hormone [FSH]) (1,8). LH stimulates Leydig cells to synthesis and secrete T, which has feedback effects on LH secretion. The seminiferous tubule compartment comprising about 85% of the mass of the testes contains Sertoli cells, which surround developing germ cells that produces mature spermatozoa. FSH binds to receptors on Sertoli cells and stimulates them to produce an androgen-binding protein, enabling the testes to concentrate T many-fold above the serum levels. Inhibin made by Sertoli cells has a feedback influence on FSH secretion (17–21).

Testosterone and its potent 5- α reduced metabolite, dihydroT (DHT), have important physiologic influences during embryogenesis, puberty, and adulthood (8). During fetal development, T and DHT result in normal differentiation of male internal and external genitalia (22,23).

During puberty, T and DHT are required for the development and maintenance of male secondary sexual characteristics. DHT results in growth of the prostate and masculinization of the skin (8,24), and the remaining androgen effects are from the actions of T. In adults, T and DHT are required for the maintenance of libido and potency, muscle mass and strength, fat distribution, bone mass, erythropoiesis, prostate growth, male pattern hair growth, and spermatogenesis.

Pathophysiology of Hypogonadism

Hypogonadism is caused by disorders of the testes (primary, as listed in Table 1), pituitary (secondary), or hypothalamus (tertiary) (1,8). T deficiency may occur as the result of Leydig cell dysfunction from primary disease of the testes, inadequate LH secretion from diseases of the pituitary, or impaired GnRH secretion by the hypothalamus. Pinpointing the cause and extent of hypogonadism makes it possible to tailor successful replacement therapy (see Table 2). Men with primary gonadal failure usually have either isolated azoospermia or oligospermia or azoospermia and T deficiency. T therapy is offered to men with androgen deficiency when successful fertility is improbable or not desired.

General Manifestations

CLINICAL PRESENTATION

The clinical presentation of male hypogonadism depends on the stage of sexual development (1,8). Androgen deficiency occurring during fetal development from defects in androgen synthesis, metabolism, or androgen responsiveness results in various manifestations of male pseudohermaphroditism.

Prepubertal. In boys with prepubertal hypogonadism, expression of the androgen deficiency is seldom recognized before the typical age for onset of puberty except in those with associated growth retardation or other anatomic and endocrine abnormalities. Failure of puberty is well characterized by several clinical features, as shown in Table 3.

Table 1 Causes of Hypogonadism

Gonadal defects

Genetic Defect-Klinefelter's syndrome, myotonic dystrophy, Prader-Willi syndrome

Polyglandular autoimmune failure syndromes (e.g., Schmidt syndrome)

Anatomic defects

Toxins: cytotoxic agents, spironolactone, alcohol

Radiation

Orchitis: usually as a result of mumps

Hormone resistance

Androgen insensitivity

Luteinizing hormone insensitivity

Hypopituitarism

Idiopathic

Tumor

Other causes

Hyperprolactinemia

Usually the result of pituitary adenoma

Idiopathic increased prolactin production

Gonadotropin deficiency

Hypogonadotropic hypogonadism

Isolated congenital idiopathic GnRH deficiency

GnRH deficiency with anosmia: Kallman syndrome

Acquired GnRH deficiency is very uncommon

Respond to pulsatile GnRH administration

Hypothalamic insufficiency

LH or FSH deficiency

Systemic diseases

Chronic diseases

Malnutrition/starvation

Massive obesity

AIDS/HIV

Table 2
Laboratory Testing of Hypogonadism

			71 8		
Hypothalamic	Primary hypogonadism	Seminiferous tubule disease	Leydig cell failure	Pituitary disease	Hypothalamic disease
T	Low	Normal	Low	Low	Low
LH	High	Normal	High	Low	Low
FSH	High	High	Normal	Low	Low
Sperm count	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low
LH and FSH response to GnRH	Normal	Not done	Not done	Low	Normal

Review: Interpreting the results (1)T low, LH and FSH elevated \rightarrow primary hypogonadism; order karyotype. (2) T low, LH and FSH normal or low \rightarrow secondary hypogonadism, obtain PRL and computed tomography scan of head to screen for mass lesion; remaining pituitary hormones must be tested for deficiency. (3) T and LH normal, FSH high \rightarrow abnormal seminiferous tubule compartment; order semen analysis. (4) T, LH and FSH high \rightarrow androgen resistance syndrome.

Table 3 Clinical Presentation of Peripubertal Hypogonadism

Small testes, phallus, and prostate (prepubertal testes are between 3 and 4 mL in volume and less than 3 cm long by 2 cm wide; peripubertal testes are between 4 and 15 mL in volume and 3-4 cm long by 2-3 cm wide)

Lack of male-pattern hair growth

Scant pubic and axillary hair, if adrenal androgens are also deficient

Disproportionately long arms and legs (from delayed epiphyseal closure, eunuchoidism; with the crown-to-pubis ratio <1 and an arm span more than 6 cm greater than height)

No pubertal growth spurt

No increase in libido or potency

Reduced male musculature

Gynecomastia

Persistently high-pitched voice

Table 4 Clinical Presentation of Postpubertal Hypogonadism

Progressive decrease in muscle mass

Loss of libido

Impotence

Infertility with oligospermia or azoospermia

Hot flashes (with acute onset of hypogonadism)

Osteoporosis

Anemia

Adult testes are usually between 15 and 30 mL and 4.5-5.5 cm long by 2.8-3.3 cm wide

Mild depression

Reduced energy

Postpubertal. Postpubertal loss of testicular function may be manifested by infertility and androgen deficiency. The clinical symptoms and signs may evolve slowly, making them relatively subtle, particularly in older men in whom they are incorrectly attributed to aging. The growth of male pattern body hair often slows, but the change of the voice and the size of the phallus, testes, and prostate may be undetectable. In younger men, a delay in temporal hair recession and balding may go unnoticed as a manifestation of T deficiency. Men with postpubertal hypogonadism may have some or all of these clinical findings, as summarized in Table 4.

GOAL OF ANDROGEN THERAPY

In androgen-replacement therapy, a safe, general principle is to mimic the normal concentrations of T (350–1050 ng/dL) and its active metabolites (25–29), thereby avoiding unphysiologically high or low serum T concentrations. (Clearly, patients experience symptoms with androgen deficiency, but whether unphysiologically high concentrations carry health risks is unknown.) When these goals are met, physiological responses to androgen-replacement therapy allows virilization in prepubertal males and restoration or preservation of virilization in postpubertal men. The therapy should not have

untoward health hazards on the prostate, serum lipids, and cardiovascular, liver and lung function. Ideally, therapy should allow self-administration, be convenient, cause minimal discomfort, and result in reproducible daily pharmacokinetics at a reasonable cost. None of the currently available androgen-replacement therapies achieves the ideal, but their relative merits will be discussed. A review will be made comparing the pharmacokinetics of different androgen preparations widely used for substitution therapy.

OVERVIEW OF PHARMACOLOGY OF ANDROGENS

Historical Aspects

Evidence that the testes produced virilizing substances initially was observed by Berthold in 1849 (30), who transplanted testes from roosters into the abdomen of capons, which made them behave like normal roosters. Butenandt in 1931 (31) was the first to obtain T from urine, and David in 1935 (32) crystallized it from the urine of bulls. T was then chemically synthesized by Butenandt and Hanisch in 1935 (33) and Ruzick and Wettstein in 1935 (34). After its synthesis, T was introduced for treatment of T deficiency. Because oral pure T was ineffective, subcutaneous T pellets were implanted or T's methyl derivative (methylT) was administered orally. In the 1950s, T ester injections gained widespread acceptance (35). Other derivatives were prepared in an attempt to prepare steroids with anabolic properties. In the 1970s T undecanoate, an oral preparation, became available for clinical use in some countries. Because derivatives of T but not fatty acid esters have hepatic toxicity, the emphasis has recently been on delivering pure T by oral, injectable, or transdermal preparations. Although T is metabolized to potent metabolites by steroid 5-α-reductase to form DHT and aromatase to form estradiol, chemical modification of T results in compounds that are poor substrates for these enzymes.

Oral Testosterone Preparations

PURE TESTOSTERONE

Unesterified pure T administered orally is rapidly metabolized by the liver to inactive products and is therefore an ineffective route of administration (36–39).

17A-METHYLT

 17α -MethylT was the first orally active, synthesized derivative of T (Table 6). After oral administration, peak blood levels are achieved between 1.5 and 2 h, and its serum half-life is about 150 min, suggesting that several doses daily would be required to maintain a therapeutic level of the steroid (40). Hepatic toxicity, including cholestasis, peliosis, elevation of liver enzymes, and reduction of HDL cholesterol limit its use (41–44).

FLUOXYMESTERONE

This steroid is a 17α -methylT steroid with fluorine in the 9 position and has a longer half-life in serum than the parent steroid, but its risk of hepatoxicity limits its clinical use (41,45-47).

MESTEROLONE

Mesterolone is a derivative of 5 α -dihydrotestosterone with a methyl group in the 1 position. It is not hepatoxic, but it is not metabolized to estrogen, and dosing is difficult to monitor, making it unsatisfactory for replacement therapy (35,48-53).

Table 6
Structure of Testosterone and Its Derivatives

Generic name	R	X	Other modifications
Natural androgens			
Testosterone	Н	Н	
5α-DihydroT	Н	H	4,5-ane
Unmodified 17\alpha esters			.,-
T propionate	COCH, CH,	н	
T enanthate	$CO(CH_2^2)_5CH_3$	Н	
T cypionate	2.5 3	Н	
T undecanoate	CO(CH ₂) ₈ CH ₂ =CH ₂	Н	
Modified 17α esters	2'8 2 2		
Methenolone acetate	COCH,	Н	1-CH ₃ ; 1,2-ene; 4,5-ane
Nandrolone phenylpropionate	3	Н	19-nor CH ₂
Nandrolone decanoate	CO(CH ₂) ₆ CH ₃	Н	19-nor CH ₃
17α-Alkylation	2.6 3		3
MethylT	Н	CH,	
Fluoxymesterone	Н	CH ₂	9-F; 11-OH
Methandrostenolone	Н	CH_2^3	1,2-ene
Oxandrolone	Н	CH_2^3	C ₂ replaced by O; 4,5-and
Oxymethelone	Н	CH ₂	2=CHOH; 4,5-ane
Stanozolol	Н	CH_2^3	4,5-ane; {3,2-c}pyrazole
Danazole	Н	сн,сн	{2,3-d}isoxazole
Norethandrolone	Н	CH,CH,	19-nor CH
Ethylestrenole	Н	$CH_2^2CH_3^3$	19-nor CH ₃ ; 3-H
Modified androgen		2 3	3
Mesterolone	Н	Н	1-CH ₃ ; 4,5-ane

TESTOSTERONE UNDECANOATE

Adding a 17β long aliphatic side-chain ester to T results in good absorption from the gut and substantial uptake by the lymphatics rather than the hepatic portal system. Consequently, free T enters the systemic circulation (63%) without substantial hepatic transformation, and therapeutic T levels are achieved over the first few hours of administration (29,54–64). This preparation is not currently available in the United States, but an improved formulation now being tested in the United States may overcome some of these deficiencies and make it a more satisfactory preparation for androgen replacement therapy.

Sublingual

Sublingual administration of T complexed with hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin results in a rapid rise in serum T, but adequate serum levels of T are sustained for less than 2 h. Its short serum half-life and bitter taste limit its acceptability (65–68).

TESTOSTERONE CYCLODEXTRIN

A sublingual preparation contains natural T surrounded by a carbohydrate ring (2-hydroxypropyl- β cyclodextrin), a facilitator of absorption of T through the oral mucosa (65-69). This preparation may produce physiologic levels of T without untoward toxicity, but reproducible manufacture of the preparation has limited further clinical study.

Intramuscular Preparations

TESTOSTERONE ESTERS OVERVIEW

Esterification of T at the 17 position with a fatty acid prolongs the intramuscular retention and duration of activity of T in proportion to the length of the fatty acid. When administered intramuscularly (70), the androgen ester is slowly absorbed into the circulation where it is then rapidly metabolized to active unesterified T(71). Intrinsic potency, bioavailability, and rate of clearance from the circulation are determinants of the biological actions of androgens.

Testosterone propionate has a short release phase of only 2–3 d and should not be used for long-term replacement therapy (72). Longer-acting preparations include T enanthate (TE), cypionate (TC) and cyclohexane carboxylate, which all have similar steroid release profiles when injected intramuscularly (see Fig. 1). A satisfactory regimen is to administer 200 mg of either T enanthate or cypionate once every 2 wk intramuscularly or 100 mg weekly (72–76). T-trans-4-n-butylcyclohexyl-carboxylate and T undecanoate are even longer-acting preparations. Blood levels following T-trans-4-n-butylcyclohexyl-carboxylate administration are sustained for about 12 wk after a large injection of 600 mg in a volume of 2.4 mL (77).

NANDROLONE PHENYLPROPIONATE AND DECANOATE

Nandrolone phenylpropionate and decanoate are 17β -hydroxyl esters of 19-norT (78,79), have prolonged action when injected, and are used to treat refractory anemias primarily rather than for androgen-replacement therapy.

MULTIPLE-DOSE PHARMACOKINETICS

As summarized in Fig. 2 and based on simulation and dosing pharmacokinetics, injections of T enanthate (200–250 mg injected every 2 wk) result in a maximal supraphysiological T serum concentrations as high as 51 nmol/L shortly after injection and T serum levels at the lower range of normal T serum concentration (12 nmol/L) before 2 wk (74,80,81).

TESTOSTERONE ESTER COMBINATIONS

THE STATE OF THE S

Although the intermediate-acting preparations provide high concentrations of T within hours after their administration (see Table 5), no advantage has been shown for combining a short- and an intermediate-acting preparation (74).

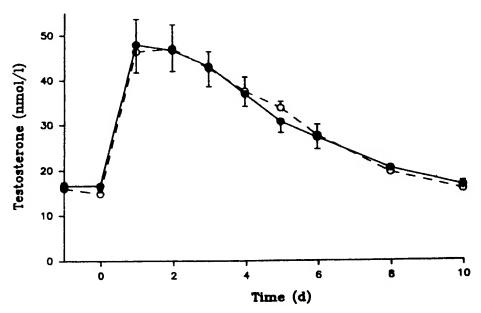


Fig. 1. Comparative pharmacokinetics of 194 mg of T enanthate and 200 mg of T cypionate after intramuscular injection to six normal volunteers. Filled circles: mean \pm SEM of T enanthate kinetics; open circles: mean \pm SEM of T cypionate kinetics. (From ref. 74.)

TESTOSTERONE BUCCILATE

Intramuscular injection of 600 mg of T buccilate to hypogonadal men produced serum T concentrations within the normal range for about 8 wk with a terminal elimination half-life of 29.5 d (77). Serum DHT concentrations were within the normal range; estradiol was only slightly increased above normal; SHBG did not change; and gonadotropins were significantly suppressed. No adverse biochemical or prostate responses were reported. It is unknown if this preparation will find use for male contraceptive therapy or replacement for hypogonadism.

TESTOSERONE UNDECANOATE

Intramuscular injections of 500 and 1000 mg of testosterone undecanoate (TU) in hypogonadal men resulted in increased mean serum T levels from less than 10 nmol/L to 47.8 ± 10.1 and 54.2 ± 4.8 nmol/L, respectively, after about 1 wk. Thereafter, serum T levels decreased progressively and reached the lower-normal limit for adult men by d 50–60 and had a terminal elimination half-life of 18.3 ± 2.3 and 23.7 ± 2.7 d, respectively (82,83). Estradiol and DHT followed the pattern of T and remained within normal limits. In these short-term studies, no serious side effects were noted. Intramuscular TU appears to be well suited for long-term substitution therapy in hypogonadism and hormonal male contraception (82,83).

SUBCUTANEOUS TESTOSTERONE IMPLANTS

Fused pellets or silastic capsules of pure T implanted subcutaneously release T in sufficient quantities to maintain physiologic concentrations of T for between 4 and 6 mo (84,85). The bioavailability of T from subdermal pellet implants approaches 100% by 6 mo (see Fig. 3) and is proportional to the dose administered. T pellets implanted in 43 hypogonadal men $(6 \times 100 \text{ mg}, 3 \times 200 \text{ mg}, 6 \times 200 \text{ mg};$ total of 111 implants) reproducibly maintained serum T concentrations within the normal range for 4–6 mo (see Fig. 3) (84,85).

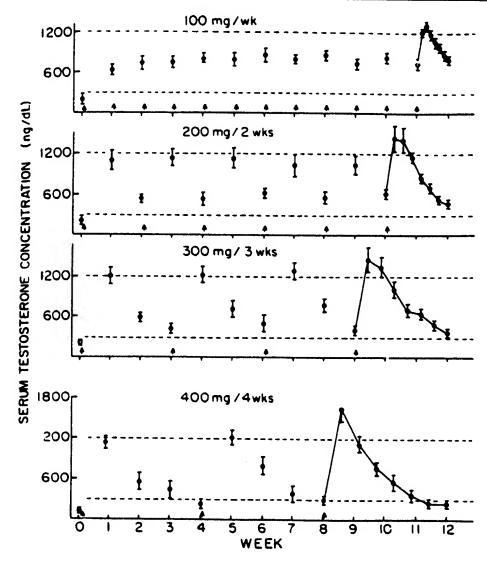


Fig. 2. Serum T concentrations during T replacement therapy in adult primary hypogonadal men. T enanthate was administered by intramuscular injection (arrows) for 12 wk in four dosage regimens: 100 mg weekly; 200 mg every 2 wk; 300 mg every 3 wk; and 4000 mg every 4 wk. Blood was sampled weekly until the last dose and more frequently thereafter. (From ref. 80.)

Similar results were reported by Jockenhovel et al. (87) who implanted 6- to 200-mg fused crystalline T pellets in the subdermal fat tissue of the abdomen in hypogonadal men. An initial peak was observed on the first day of administration; thereafter, a stable plateau lasted for 63 d. On average T values fell below the normal range by 180 d but did not return to baseline for about 300 d. Serum estradiol and DHT were elevated from d 21 to d 105, and SHBG was decreased from d 21 to d 168. Thus, implants of T pellets have potential for both T replacement therapy, as well as reversible male contraception.

Transdermal Testosterone

Transdermal creams containing T have been used in the treatment of microphallus in children (88). The applications probably are effective because of systemic absorption rather than local absorption in the penis. As yet, a widespread clinical trial with these preparations has not been reported (89).

Table 5 Pharmacokinetics and Safety of Androgens

Preparation	Peak	Trough	T monitoring	DHT	Estradiol	Liver dysfunction	HDL cholesterol	Skin irritation
T propionate	l d	2-3 d	None	Dose depend.	Dose depend.	None	Dose depend.	None
T enanthate	1-2 d	10-14 d	1 wk	Dose depend.	Dose depend.	None	Dose depend.	None
T cypionate	1-2 d	10-14 d	1 wk	Dose depend.	Dose depend.	None	Dose depend.	None
T buccilate	2-4 wk	12-14 wk	4-6 wk	Dose depend.	Dose depend.	None	Dose depend.	None
T pellets	1 mo	e mo	3-4 mo	Dose depend.	Dose depend.	None	Dose depend.	None
T undeconoate	2-6 h	2–6 h		Increased	Normal	None	Dose depend.	None
T cyclodextrin	1 h	9 h	2-4 h	Normal	Normal	None	Modest	None
MethylT	1.5-2 h	4-5 h	None	Low	Low	Yes	30% dec.	None
Fluoxymesterone				Low	Low	Yes		None
Mesterolone				Low	Low	None		None
T gel	20-24 h	þ	24 h	Normal	Normal	None	Modest	Minimal
T scrotal	3-5 h	20-24 h	12 h	Elevated	Normal	None	Modest	Minimal
T nonscrotal	4 8-9	24 h	12 h	Normal	Normal	None	Modest	Yes
DHT topical	4–8 h	20–24 h	DHT 12 h	Elevated	Low	None	Modest	Minimal

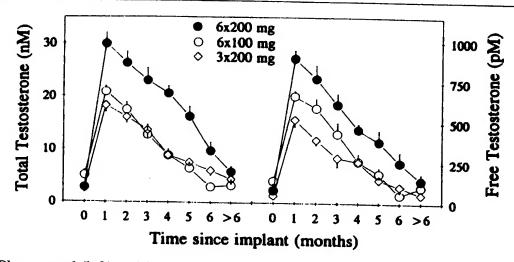


Fig. 3. Plasma total (left) and free (right) T following a single implantation in 43 hypogonadal men. (From ref. 86).

PERCUTANEOUS DHT IN HYPOGONADAL MEN

A 125-mg dose of hydroalcoholic gel of DHT applied twice daily to the skin can produce sustained concentrations of DHT (90–92). The ratio of DHT/T ratio increased to around 5 (normal ranges between 0.1 and 0.2), and serum T, estradiol, and SHBG concentrations did not increase; no change in gonadotropins was observed (92). Treatment of hypogonadal men reportedly improved virilization and sexual function (93), and a moderate decrease in plasma low-density lipoprotein (LDL) and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol levels was observed. DHT therapy did not result in enlargement of the prostate as determined by ultrasound study (92,94).

Transdermal Testosterone

TRANS-SCROTAL TESTOSTERONE

Scrotal skin is at least five times more permeable to T than other skin sites. Testoderm® or Testoderm® With Adhesive will only produce adequate serum T concentrations if applied to scrotal skin. The 60-cm² and 40-cm² Testoderm patches applied to the scrotum of hypogonadal men delivers 4 and 6 mg, respectively, of T daily (95). Peak T concentrations increased progressively during the first 3 wk and then remained stable. Although DHT concentrations remained elevated, the normal range androgen concentrations (T plus DHT) and estradiol were achieved in 80% of hypogonadal men (28,95–101).

NONSCROTAL TESTOSTERONE PATCH THERAPY (ANDRODERM)

Pharmacokinetics. After two 2.5-mg or one 5-mg Androderm system(s) was applied daily to nonscrotal skin (back, abdomen, thighs, and upper arms) at about 10 pm, T was continuously absorbed during the 24-h dosing period. The serum T concentration profile mimicked the normal circadian variation observed in healthy young men (see Fig. 4) (26,102,103). In addition, bioavailable T, DHT, and estradiol serum T concentrations (BT) measured during Androderm treatment paralleled the serum T profile (see Fig. 4) and remained within the normal reference range.

In clinical studies of Androderm, 93% of patients needed a dose of 5 mg daily to maintain normal concentrations of T; 6%, 7.5 mg daily; and 1%, 2.5 mg daily

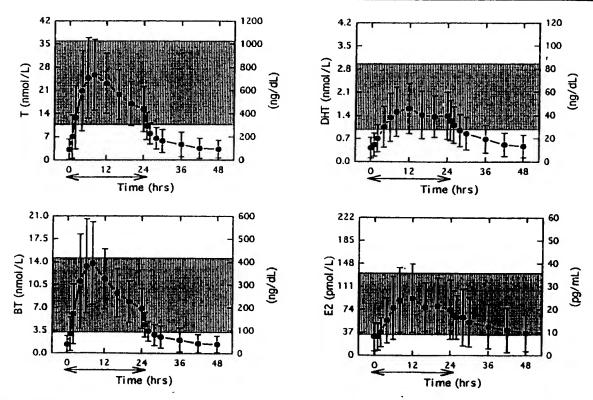


Fig. 4. Serum concentration profiles of T, BT, DHT, and E2 during and after the nighttime application of two TTD systems to the back of 34 hypogonadal men (mean \pm SD). The shaded areas represent 95% confidence intervals for morning hormone levels in normal men between the ages of 20–65 yr. The arrow denotes the 24-h duration of TTD system application. (Reproduced with permission from ref. 26.)

(26,102,103). Androderm therapy for 6-12 mo in men with primary hypogonadism had suppressed gonadotropins to normal range in about 50% of men (26,102-104). Androderm therapy had positive effects on fatigue, mood, and sexual function as determined from questionnaires and nocturnal penile tumescence (26,102-104).

Comparison with Intramuscular Testosterone. In a study of 66 patients previously treated with T injections, subjects were randomized to receive either Androderm or intramuscular T enanthate (200 mg every 2 wk) treatment for 6 mo (102). The percent of normal range serum concentrations of T, bioavailable T, DHT, and estradiol was 82, 87, 76, and 81%, respectively, compared with 72, 39, 70, and 35%, respectively, for intramuscular T injections. Sexual function assessment and lipid profiles were comparable between groups.

Management of Skin Irritation. Chronic contact dermatitis resulting mainly from the alcohol component of the patch occurs in about 10% of men following several weeks of use of Androderm. Applying about two drops of 0.1% triamcinolone acetonide cream to the skin under the central drug reservoir has been shown to greatly reduce contact dermatitis and itching without significantly affecting T delivery (105,106). The quantity of glucocorticoid applied and absorbed is insufficient to produce significant alteration of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis. Hydrocortisone is less effective, and ointments should not be used because they will diminish T delivery.

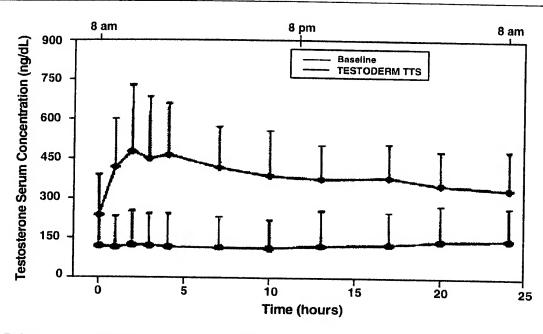


Fig. 5. Serum concentrations of T (mean \pm SD) during pretreatment baseline or while wearing a Testoderm TTS system on the upper buttocks (n = 32). Systems were applied at 0 h (8 AM) and removed 24 h later. (From Physician Desk Reference).

TESTODERM TTS

Testoderm TTS applied each morning to the arm, back, or upper buttocks delivers physiologic amounts of T that exhibits a serum T circadian pattern resembling normal men (see Fig. 5). Following skin application, T concentrations peak at 2–4 h, continue to be absorbed during the 24-h dosing period, and return toward baseline within approx 2 h after removal of the system. In clinical trials, 94% of patients on Testoderm TTS treatment had peak (531 ng/dL) and average (366 ng/dL) serum T concentrations within the normal range. Applying two systems also doubles the amount of T delivered. When applied to the skin sites recommended (arm, back, or upper buttocks), the ratio of T to DHT or estradiol was also normal. The most commonly reported adverse events were application site reactions of transient itching (12%) and moderate or severe erythema (3%). All topical reactions decreased with duration of use.

ANDROGELTM

AndroGelTM 5 G, 7.5 G, or 10 G contain packets of 50 mg, 75 mg, or 100 mg of T, respectively. Approximately 10% of the applied T dose is absorbed across skin of average permeability during a 24-h period, resulting in circulating concentrations of T observed in normal men (107). Figure 6 summarizes the 24-h pharmacokinetic profiles of T for patients maintained on 5 G or 10 G of AndroGel (to deliver 50 or 100 mg of T, respectively) for 30 d. The average (±SD) daily T concentration produced by AndroGel 10 G on d 30 was 792 (±294) ng/dL and by AndroGel 5 G, it was 566 (±262) ng/dL.

AndroGel dries quickly when applied to the skin surface, and the skin serves as a reservoir for the sustained release of T into the systemic circulation (107). After the first 10 G dose, increases in serum T are observed within 30 min; and by 4 h of application, most patients have a serum T concentration within the normal range. Absorption of T into

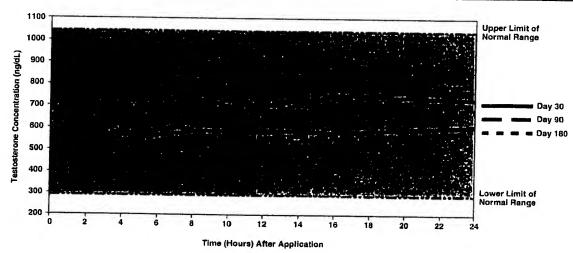


Fig. 6. shows the mean steady-state serum T concentrations in patients applying 5 g or 10 g Androgel once daily. (Data on file. Unimed Pharmaceuticals.)

the blood is sustained for the 24-h dosing interval, resulting in serum T concentrations approximating the steady-state level by the end of the first 24 h and achieving steady state by the second or third day of dosing.

Serum T levels decrease sharply after withdrawal of the patches, but serum T concentrations remain in the normal range for 24–48 h after the last application, and it take 5 d to return to baseline. Eighty-seven percent achieved an average serum T level within the normal range on treatment d 180.

Potential Partner Testosterone Transfer. Studies of the potential for dermal T transfer following AndroGel use between males dosed with AndroGel and their untreated female partners indicated that unprotected female partners had a serum T concentration more than twice the baseline value at some time during the study. When a barrier, such as a shirt, covered the application site(s), no transfer of T from the males to the female partners was observed.

Following AndroGel doses of 5 G/d and 10 G/d, DHT and estradiol concentrations increased in parallel with T concentrations, and the DHT/T ratio and estradiol levels stayed within the normal range. During AndroGel treatment, decreases of serum levels of SHBG were modest (1–11%), and serum levels of LH and FSH in men with hypergonadotropic hypogonadism fell in a dose- and time-dependent manner during treatment with AndroGel. Although skin reactions were reported in 3–5% of patients using AndroGel for up to 6 mo, none was severe enough to require treatment or discontinuation of drug.

TOSTREX

A new T gel (Cellegy Pharmaceuticals, Inc.) has undergone clinical trials in about 200 hypogonadal men. The initial dose applied to the skin daily raises the serum concentrations of T on the first day of application, and reaches steady state by 14 d. A metered-dose canister allows adjusting the dose in 10-mg increments. Following adjustment of the dose based on the testosterone concentrations on d 14, over 90% of men achieved a 24-h concentration average within the normal physiologic range, as was the ratio of estradiol to T and DHT to T. Its safety profile in terms of chemistries, lipid profiles,

polycythemia, and prostate-specific antigen were comparable to other transdermal testosterone preparations on the market. Tostrex therapy for 6 mo resulted in improvement of hip and spine bone mineral density (BMD) of about 4%.

Human Chorionic Gonadotropin

Human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) is a polypeptide hormone produced by the human placenta and is composed of an α -subunit essentially identical to the α -subunits of the human pituitary gonadotropins (LH and FSH) and TSH. A specific α -subunit of hCG binds to the LH receptors on Leydig cells and stimulates endogenous T production from the testes. hCG also has some FSH activity that differs from pure LH.

In prepubertal boys between the ages of 4 and 9 yr with cryptorchidism not caused by anatomical obstruction, hCG treatment is done with the following regimen: 4000 USP units of hCG three times weekly for 3 wk; then 5000 U every 2 d for 4 injections followed by 15 injections of 500 to 1000 U for 6 wk; and then, 500 U three times a week for 4–6 wk.

Human chorionic gonadotropin is an alternative to T therapy in inducing pubertal development in boys and treating androgen deficiency in men with gonadotropin deficiency. In young prepubertal boys (e.g., 13–14 yr of age) presenting with hypogonadotropic hypogonadism and delayed puberty, hCG may be begun at a dosage of 1000–2000 IU intramuscularly. It is then slowly increased during the next 1–2 yr to the adult dosages of 1000–2000 IU intramuscularly, two to three times weekly (see Table 7). Some men with gonadotropin deficiency require either higher or lower dosages of hCG. Therapy in prepubertal boys can be monitored by assessing the clinical response to treatment by following the progression of virilization and growth and the serum T concentration, which should be maintained within the normal range for the desired Tanner stage of sexual development (108).

Human chorionic gonadotropin therapy has two major advantages over T replacement therapy. Firstly, it stimulates growth of the testes, which may be important to boys with delayed puberty (108). Secondly, it may stimulate sufficient intratesticular T production to facilitate initiation of spermatogenesis. hCG treatment has several disadvantages. It requires frequent injections, is expensive, elevates estradiol relative to T and may cause gynecomastia. If neutralizing antibodies to hCG are induced, they may reduce the efficacy of hCG or make it completely ineffective (1,8).

POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF ANDROGEN THERAPY

Testosterone Replacement Therapy in Andropause (Aging Men)

(This topic will be covered in detail in Chapter 21.) Most studies have confirmed an age-related decline in T beginning in the fourth decade of life, and about 20% of men by age 60 have serum T concentrations of less than 300–350 ng/dL (2–5,14,27,28,109–113). Because SHBG rises in aging men, bioavailable T (non-SHBG-bound) or free T concentrations may better reflect the deficiency of T than the total T concentration. Thus, free or bioavailable T measurements are recommended when the total T concentration is between 200 and 400 ng/dL.

Testosterone Effects on Body Composition

Studies in older men treated with T replacement have generally confirmed that body fat mass declines and lean body mass increases. Several forms of therapy have been used and

Table 7
Treatment of Male Hypogonadism

Group	Goal of therapy	Plasma T	Preparation	Usual dose
Delayed adolescence	Short-term maintenance, initial	100-300 ng/dL	hCG	500 IU im 1-2 times/wk
			Androderm	2.5 mg patch, 12 h at night
			TE or TC	50–100 mg q 3–4 wk
	Subsequent	300-400 ng/dL	Androderm TE or TC	2.5 mg/daily 100 q 2 wk
Adult	Long-term maintenance	400-1000 ng/dL		100 4 2 WM
Hypogonadotropic			GnRH ^a	5–30 μg sc q 2 h
hypogonadism Hypogonadism			hCG	1000-4000 IU im 1-3 times/wk
			Androderm, Testoderm, Androgel	5 mg/d
			Testoderm, Scrotal	4 or 6 mg/d
			TE or TC	200 mg q 2 wk or 100 q 1 wk im
	Subreplacement		Fluoxymesterone Methyltestosterone T undecanoate ^b	5-10 mg/d po 5-25 mg daily 200 po q 2 wk

^aExperimental, requires programmed pump.

include T esters, the scrotal patch, and a gel preparation. In addition, some aspects of muscle strength, fat-free mass, and visceral fat improved. These studies were relatively short and ranged in length between 3 and 18 mo. The studies are too small and of inadequate length to make it possible to compare one treatment modality to another (114–117).

Muscle Performance and Wasting

In addition, the measurement of the triceps and quadriceps increased significantly as did muscle strength measured by one repetition maximum of weight lifting. These results are in agreement with cross-sectional studies in men with the AIDS wasting syndrome (118). Testosterone therapy is used for management of weight loss and wasting associated with AIDS (119–121). Administration of replacement doses of T to healthy hypogonadal and HIV-infected men improves lean body mass, muscle size, and maximal voluntary strength (122). Sih et al. (123) reported improvement of bilateral grip strength in older hypogonadal men treated with T at 3, 6, 9, and 12 mo of therapy.

^bNot available in the United States.

Abbreviations: hCG, human chorionic gonadotropin; GnRH, gonadotropin-releasing hormone; TE, T enanthate; TC, T cypionate.

Mood

In elderly and younger hypogonadal men, T therapy improves spatial cognition, sense of well being, libido, fatigue, self-reported sense of energy $(49\pm19\%$ to $66\pm24\%$; p=0.01) and sexual function $(24\pm20\%$ to $66\pm24\%$; p<0.001) within the first 3 mo of initiation of therapy (68,114,115,124-127).

Testosterone therapy (68) significantly decreases anger, irritability, sadness, tiredness, and nervousness while improving energy level, friendliness, and sense of wellbeing. Sih et al. (123) did find an improvement of memory with of T replacement.

Impotence

Impotence in hypogonadal men may be corrected in about 75% of men if the cause of impotence is androgen deficiency (128). Some men have androgen deficiency and impotence caused by other factors. If several months of T therapy does not correct their impotence, other causes should be sought.

Leptin

Although serum T is negatively associated with leptin in men, the association is confounded with visceral and subcutaneous adipose tissue, fasting insulin, and sex hormones. Thus, T does not appear to be the major determinate of serum leptin in men (129). In aging men, a rise of serum leptin levels occurs, and a strong association between serum leptin and adiposity is maintained (130). Furthermore, T ester therapy significantly reduced leptin concentrations in elderly men (123), normalizes elevated ob gene product leptin (OB) levels in hypogonadal men (131) and also decreases leptin concentrations in boys with delayed puberty (132). The studies suggest the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal-adipose tissue axis is involved in body weight maintenance and reproductive function (131,133).

Osteoporosis

Androgen Deficiency and Osteoporosis

Effects of Androgens in Normal Men. Androgens affect both by the peak bone mass achieved during development and the subsequent amount of bone lost. The dramatic increase in both cortical and trabecular bone density during puberty in boys (134,135) is attributed to the pubertal rise in T or one of its metabolites. During puberty, an increase in serum alkaline phosphatase heralds a rise in osteoblast activity and subsequent bone density increases. In normal boys, peak trabecular bone density is usually achieved by the age of 18 yr (135), and peak cortical bone density is often reached a few years later. Bone density remains relatively stable in young adult males and then declines slowly after age 35 yr (136); the bone loss is regulated by genetic, endocrine, mechanical, and nutritional factors.

BONE DENSITY IN HYPOGONADAL MEN

Studies in Men with Primary Hypogonadism. Surgical or medical castration in men results in a reduction in BMD and elevated biochemical markers of bone turnover (137,138). These findings suggest that gonadal steroid deficiency is associated with increased bone turnover and loss, leading to osteoporosis (see Fig. 7); other secondary causes are glucocorticosteroid therapy, skeletal metastases, multiple myeloma, gastric surgery, and anticonvulsant and neuroleptic treatment (139–142).

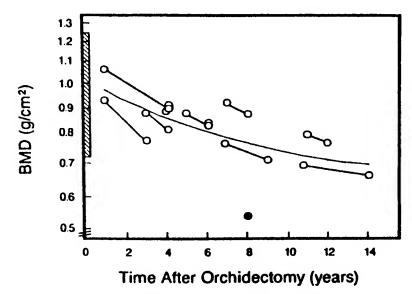


Fig. 7. Scattergram of lumbar spinal BMD as a function of time after orchidectomy in 12 men. In eight patients, the measurement was repeated after 1-3 yr. The hatched bar indicates the normal range for 20 men matched for age. The solid circle represents the value for one man who developed a hip fracture. (Reproduced with permission from ref. 137.)

Although hypogonadism is found in up to 20% of men with vertebral crush fractures or osteoporosis, the clinical features of T deficiency may be subtle.

AGING AND OSTEOPOROSIS

Osteoporosis is one of the leading causes of morbidity and mortality in the elderly. Bone is lost with advancing age in both men and women, leading to an increased incidence of osteoporotic fractures of the forearm, vertebral body, and femoral neck. Although aging women lose more bone than men, aging men still lose 30% of their trabecular bone and 20% of their cortical bone (136). Thus, despite lower rates of osteoporosis in men than in women, one-fifth of all hip fractures occur in men and hypogonadism is one of the most common underlying causes (143,144). Further study is needed to clarify this association between bone loss and T deficiency, but androgen replacement in aging hypogondal men does improve BMD (115,123).

Men with acquired hypogonadism, idiopathic hypogonadotropic hypogonadism (IHH) and constitutionally delayed puberty have reduced BMD and may be at increased risk for osteoporosis. In boys with delayed puberty or IHH, T may not result in normal bone accretion in adulthood (145–147). Finkelstein et al. (147) postulated that inadequate bone accretion rather than accelerated bone loss may account for the diminished adult bone mass of patients with delayed puberty or IHH. Both radial and spinal bone mineral density were significantly lower in men with histories of delayed puberty than in normal controls (see Fig. 8A,B). These results establish that T replacement in young or elderly hypogonadal men improve BMD.

GLUCOCORTICOIDS, ANDROGENS, AND OSTEOPOROSIS

Osteoporosis is associated with both hypogonadism and corticosteroid therapy. In addition, glucocorticoid therapy may cause a variety of adverse systemic effects, including adrenal suppression, dermal thinning, and a reduction in total bone calcium. Test-

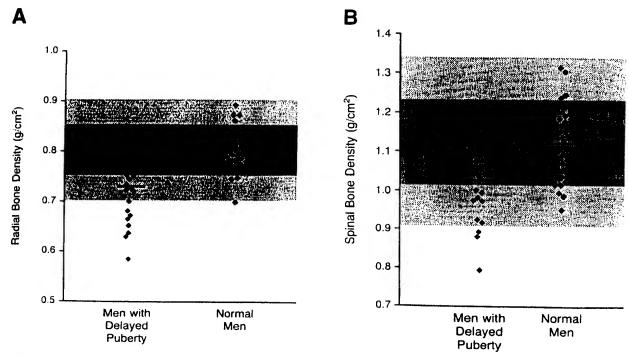


Fig. 8. Radial bone density (A) and spinal bone density (B) in 23 men with histories of delayed puberty and 21 normal controls. The horizontal lines indicate the group means, and the shaded areas indicate the mean \pm 1 SD and \pm 2 SD. for the normal men. (Reproduced with permission from ref. 147.)

osterone levels are reduced about 33% by long-term oral prednisolone treatment, but are minimally affected by therapeutic doses of inhaled corticosteroids (148–152).

Hypogonadism, Osteoporosis, and Testosterone Therapy

Recently, Behre et al. (153) reported on the long-term effects of androgen-replacement therapy on BMD in hypogonadal men. During the first year of therapy, BMD increased 26% (see Figs. 9 and 10). In 72 hypogonadal men, long-term therapy maintained BMD in the age-dependent reference range independent of whether the patients had primary or secondary hypogonadism. Adequate T-replacement therapy with injection of T esters, oral or transdermal preparations will improve BMD, markers of bone formation and resorption and also treat osteoporosis in hypogonadal men (115,116,154,155).

MECHANISM OF ACTION OF ANDROGENS ON BONE

The mechanism(s) whereby androgens affect bone density is still unclear. Testosterone can be converted to DHT by human bone in vitro. However, inhibition of DHT formation by administration of an inhibitor of 5α -reductase has no effect on bone mass in humans (156) or rats. The aromatization of T into estrogens may be important for many of the effects of T on bone: (1) Estrogen receptors are present in human osteoblasts (157–164); (2) estrogens appear to maintain bone mass in castrated male-to-female transsexuals; (3) men with complete estrogen resistance as a result of a genetic defect in the estrogen receptor or aromatase deficiency have severe osteopenia despite normal T levels and complete virilization (165). These findings provide compelling evidence that

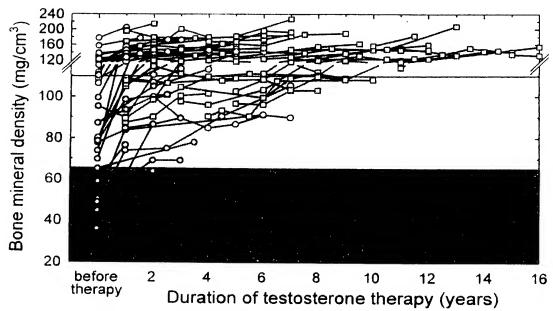


Fig. 9. Increase in BMD during long-term T-substitution therapy up to 16 yr in 72 hypogonadal patients. Circles indicate hypogonadal patients with first QCT measurement before initiation of T-substitution therapy, squares show those patients already receiving T therapy at the first QCT. The dark shaded areas indicates the range of high fracture risk, the unshaded area shows the range without significant fracture risk, and the light shaded area indicates the intermediate range where fractures may occur. (Reproduced with permission from ref. 153.)

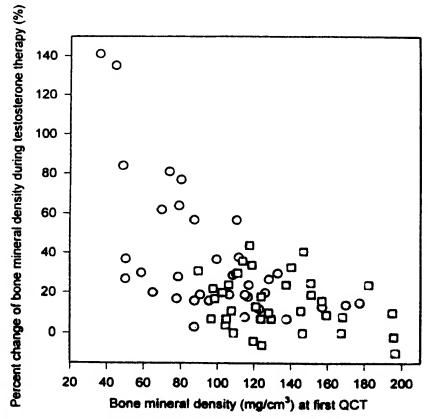


Fig. 10. Correlation between BMD at the first QCT measurement and percent change in BMD during T-substitution therapy. Circles indicate hypogonadal patients with first QCT measurement before initiation of T-substitution therapy; squares show those patients already receiving T therapy at the first QCT. (Reproduced with permission from ref. 153.)

estrogens are required for a normal peak bone mass in men. However, cortical bone mineral density is higher in men than in women (135); whether this is secondary to the larger muscle mass in men (than in women) is unknown.

THERAPY OF ANDROGEN-DEFICIENCY BONE LOSS

Androgen-replacement therapy has been shown to increase in BMD in hypogonadal men and particularly those with skeletal immaturity (147,166). The studies of Snyder et al. (115) suggest that improvement in BMD is achieved with a eugonadal serum concentration of T (>350 ng/dL) (115), so even in men with modest decreases of serum T concentrations, osteoporosis is observed. Long-term studies are needed to determine if T therapy will prevent osteoporosis without causing undue risks. Although it appears that normalization of serum T concentrations is satisfactory therapy for osteoporosis of hypogonadism, studies comparing various forms of androgen-replacement therapy on management and prevention of osteoporosis should be conducted. For some men, androgens are contraindicated and designer estrogens or bisphosphonates may provide benefits in preventing bone loss after induction of hypogonadism with medical or surgical therapy.

PRECAUTIONS OF ANDROGEN THERAPY IN AGING MEN

Several complications of androgen replacement therapy have been reported. With T preparations, the risk of adverse influences on water retention, polycythemia, hepatotoxicity, sleep apnea, prostate enlargement, and cardiovascular appear small.

Water Retention

Some weight gain is common with androgen-replacement therapy, but the occurrence of peripheral edema, hypertension, and congestive heart failure is uncommon (167).

Polycythemia

Androgens stimulate erythropoiesis, which accounts for higher hematocrits in normal men compared to hypogonadal men. Because older men tend to have lower hematocrits than younger men, the risk of polycythemia is low (167). Although Sih et al. (123) reported that 24% of older men treated with injections of T cypionate (200 mg every 2 wk) had hematocrits above 52%, T-patch therapy appears to have a lower risk for hematocrit elevation than injections of 200 mg of T esters given every 2 wk (168). Men with a history of polycythemia should be monitored closely, and those without a history of polycythemia should have periodic screening of the hematocrit.

Sleep Apnea

Testosterone-replacement therapy has been associated with worsening of sleep apnea, apparently without affecting upper airway dimension (169,170).

Recent studies of T therapy in older men have not reported sleep apnea as a complication. However, men with a history of sleep apnea were generally excluded from participation (166).

Serum Lipids

An elevation of total cholesterol and a suppression of HDL are known risk factors for cardiovascular disease. Many studies have shown a reduction in total cholesterol and

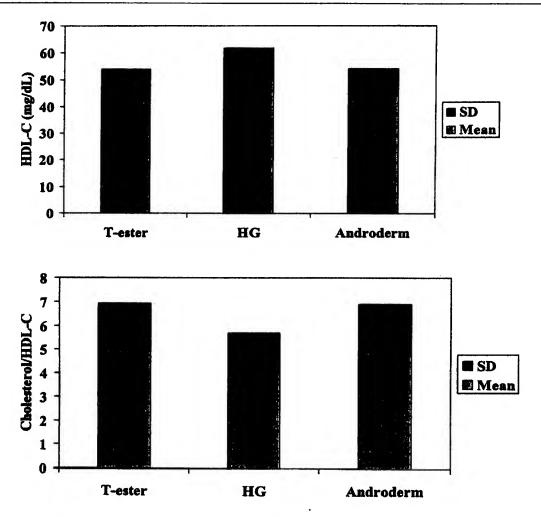


Fig. 11. Lipid changes during Androderm and T enanthate therapy in hypogonadal men. Mean \pm SE. (Reproduced with permission from ref. 26.)

LDL cholesterol in response to androgen replacement therapy without an adverse profile for HDL cholesterol. Higher than usual replacement doses of T have been associated with adverse lipid profiles (171–174).

ANDROGEN EFFECTS ON PLASMA LIPIDS

Compared to an androgen-withdrawal interval of 8 wk, Androderm treatment for 1 yr decreased cholesterol 1.2% and HDL 8%, but increased the ratio of cholesterol to HDL 9% (102) (see Fig. 11). Other studies with transdermal (patches and gel systems) androgen-replacement therapy have shown comparable results (114,115,175). However, these results were not significantly different from those measured during the intramuscular injection baseline treatment phase. In the study of Dobs et al. (175), during the T replacement phases, serum HDL levels showed a strong negative correlation with BMI and other obesity parameters. Thus, the results of transdermal T replacement on serum lipids were consistent with physiologic effects of T observed in eugonadal men.

In other studies in healthy younger men, Golderberg et al. (176) reported that treatment with a GnRH agonist produced elevation of HDL cholesterol, apo AI, and apo B levels, and no change in triglycerides. If androgen replacement is done along with GnRH

therapy, the rise in HDL cholesterol can be aborted (171–174,177). GnRH plus 100 mg/wk of TE produced only a slight decrease in HDL cholesterol without a significant change in HDL2 or 3 and apo AI. Estradiol was shown to be important in preventing the drop in HDL2 in men treated with T (173). The relationship between androgen therapy and changes in plasma lipids is complex because androgens also are associated with changes in body composition and metabolic variables (178). In older men treated with T cypionate or enanthate, no adverse effects of therapy were reported for cholesterol, LDL, HDL, or triglycerides (179,180).

Oral methylT replacement therapy decreases HDL by more than 30%, with striking changes in the HDL2 subfraction and apo AI and AII. LDL cholesterol rises about 30–40% with a decrease of 65–80% in Lp(a) levels (at least in women) (181,182). The more profound influence of anabolic androgens compared with parenteral T preparations appears to be related to the metabolism of T to estradiol and to lack of first-pass liver effects. Thus, oral nonaromatizable androgens have a greater suppression of HDL cholesterol than do aromatizable androgens such as T.

Prostate Disease

BENIGN PROSTATE ENLARGEMENT

Progressive growth of the prostate occurs in both the transition and peripheral zones of the prostate as men age (183-186). In both normal and hypogonadal aging men, androgen withdrawal results in a significant reduction in prostate volume of both zones (see Fig. 12) (185). Meikle et al. (185) found a high correlation with the volume of the prostate and age in men receiving T enanthate during androgen withdrawal and during androgen therapy with Androderm. Following 8 wk of androgen withdrawal, Androderm treatment resulted in growth of the prostate to the size observed during T enanthate therapy. Over the next 9 mo, further enlargement was not observed. In a cross-sectional study, Behre et al. (187) reported that in untreated hypogonadal men, no significant correlation existed between prostate volume and age. In contrast, T-treated men and normal men showed a positive correlation with prostate volume and age, and no significant age-adjusted differences were observed between the T-treated men and normal controls (see Fig. 13) consistent with the studies of Meikle et al. (185). Serum concentrations of PSA were not elevated above those expected in men of comparable age, which is consistent with results reported recently by Sih et al. (123). Jin and associates (188) observed that despite adequate long-term androgen-replacement therapy in men with androgen deficiency, they had reduced volumes of the central and peripheral zones as well as the total volume compared to age-matched controls, suggesting that age combined with T is important for prostate growth in mid-life. Because lower urinary tract symptoms are strongly influenced by hereditary factors and prostate volume (189), it is not surprising that androgen-replacement therapy is associated with symptomatic prostate symptoms. Although there are limitations in study design, these observations do not suggest that androgen-replacement therapy will cause growth of the prostate beyond what will occur in men with normal gonadal function.

PROSTATE CANCER

Prostate cancer is an androgen-responsive cancer, but evidence that T therapy causes prostate cancer is lacking (190, 191). An undiagnosed prostate cancer may grow in response to T therapy. A PSA and digital rectal examination is recommended in men age

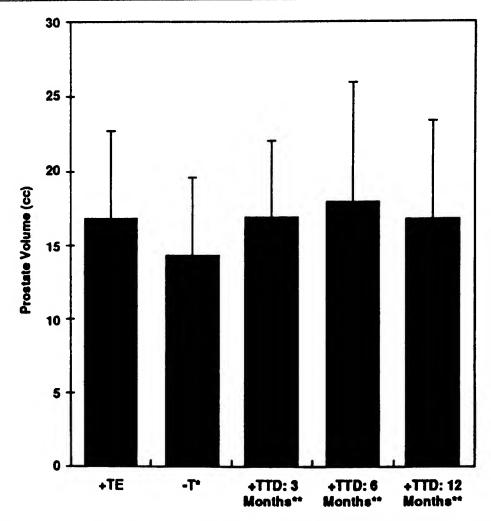


Fig. 12. Prostate volumes measured by TRUS. (T = T; TE = T enanthate; TTD = T transdermal system.) (Reproduced with permission from ref. 185.)

40 and over before initiation of androgen-replacement therapy for hypogonadism. Further, screening for prostate cancer in men on T therapy should follow the usual guidelines for normal men of comparable age. None of the studies of androgen-replacement of men has shown an increased risk of prostate cancer. However, long-term controlled studies are needed in aging men.

OTHER CONSIDERATIONS OF TREATMENT OF ANDROGEN DEFICIENCY

The main use of androgen-replacement therapy is in the management of men with T deficiency. The cause of the hypogonadism should be established to determine if it might be reversible. If so, therapy should be directed at correction of the underlying cause. For example, hyperprolactinemia from a pituitary tumor can be treated with bromocryptine, which will often correct the T deficiency. Some tumors of the pituitary or hypothalamus may require surgical or irradiation therapy. Thus, in addition to secondary or tertiary hypogonadism, other deficiencies, such as ACTH, growth hormone, and thyroid-stimu-

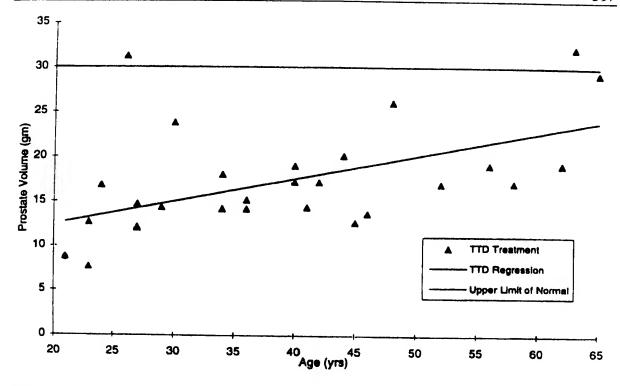


Fig. 13. Linear regression of prostate volume with age. Prostate volume correlated significantly with age during 1 yr of T transdermal system treatment (r = 0.55, p < 0.01). (IM = IM; TTD = T transdermal system.) (Reproduced with permission from ref. 185.)

lating hormone (TSH) may exist and require management. Systemic illness and gluco-corticoid therapy will cause hypogonadism, and depending on the clinical situation, androgen-replacement therapy may be considered in such patients. In aging men, androgen replacement therapy requires the usual monitoring for diseases incident to age but may offer benefits in bone preservation, lean body mass, mood, and intellectual and sexual function. For men who desire fertility at some time in their life, hormonal therapy directed at enhancing spermatogenesis may be successful. After fertility therapy is deemed a success or a failure, resumption of conventional T therapy is then indicated.

Severe gynecomastia or small testes may contribute to psychological problems or social embarrassment for some hypogonadal boys and men. Gynecomastia usually does not regress and may worsen during hormonal replacement therapy of hypogonadism; plastic surgery (reductive mammoplasty) is a reasonable alternative. Some patients with secondary hypogonadism may have enlargement of the testes in response to gonadotropin therapy, but such therapy is not indicated in men with primary hypogonadism, such as those with Klinefelter's syndrome who have extremely small testes. Surgical implantation of testicular prostheses is an option for some men and may have psychological benefits.

SUMMARY OF ANDROGEN-REPLACEMENT THERAPY

The hormone replacement goals for management of male hypogonadism depend on both the cause and the stage of sexual development in which gonadal failure occurs (Table 7). Androgen-replacement therapy is indicated to stimulate and sustain normal secondary sexual characteristics, sexual function, and behavior in prepubertal boys and

men with either primary or secondary hypogonadism. Several options for replacement therapy are available in various countries, and the availability of those preparations should be taken into consideration by the clinician before therapy is instituted. The goal is to normalize physiology as closely as possible and at the lowest cost. All of these factors influence the decision, which is shared with the physician and patient.

The available T esters for intramuscular injection (T propionate, T enanthate, T cypionate, and T cyclohexane carboxylate) do not achieve physiologic serum T profiles for the treatment of male hypogonadism (see Table 7). However, they do achieve therapeutic responses when administered in appropriate doses and intervals. Doses and injection intervals frequently prescribed in the clinic result in initial supraphysiologic androgen levels and subnormal levels prior to the next injection. Injections of 100 mg of T enanthate or cypionate intramuscular at weekly intervals would more closely approximate normal physiology than 200–250 mg every 2–3 wk. However, an injection frequency more often than 2 wk may be unacceptable to many patients. Further, because both the short-acting and intermediate-acting esters show maximal serum concentrations shortly after injection, there is no advantage in combining short-acting T esters (i.e., T propionate) and longer-acting esters (i.e., T enanthate) for T-replacement therapy.

Of the clinically available injectable androgen esters, 19-norT hexoxypheny-ipropionate shows the best pharmacokinetic profile. However, as a derivative of the naturally occurring T, 19-norT might not possess its full pharmacodynamic spectrum and, therefore, is not an ideal drug for treatment of male hypogonadism (78,79).

Oral administration of T undecanoate is easy to administer, and a new formulation may reduce the need for multiple daily doses. The most favorable pharmacokinetic profiles of T are observed using either the transdermal patch or gel systems. The scrotal system has the disadvantage of supraphysiologic DHT concentrations and is not easy to use for many patients. Daily administration of Androderm, in the evening results in serum T concentrations in the normal range, mimicking the regular circadian rhythm. The nontranscrotal system has the disadvantage of local skin reactions, which can often be successfully managed with topical glucocorticoid administration. Testoderm, TTS also produces a circadian variation of T delivery and satisfactory replacement therapy. Patch adherence is a problem for many patients, which reduces its therapeutic efficacy. Skin reactions are much less with Testoderm, TTS than with Androderm. Androgel, also produces T levels within the normal range but does not have a distinct diurnal delivery pattern. A newer gel preparation should be available soon. Skin reactions are much less frequent with gels than with patch systems, and because the gels are transparent after application, they are more discreet. Person-to-person transfer is a potential problem with gels, but this problem can be avoided with appropriate precautions. Currently, several satisfactory options for T-replacement therapy are available to clinicians in various countries. Of course, the treatment must be tailored for each patient, and important considerations include ease of use, physiologic replacement, few side effects, and cost. All of these should be discussed with the patient before making the selection. Although T esters, T enanthate, and T cypionate are effective, safe, and the least expensive androgen preparations available (particularly if self-administered), they require administration by injection into a large muscle. Testosterone enanthate and cypionate are considered equally effective and have been popular in the past for treatment of hypogonadal men (see Table 7).

Prepubertal

Androgen-replacement therapy in prepubertal hypogonadism is usually started at about 14 yr of age. The earliest sign of puberty in boys is enlargement of the testes. Increases in serum LH and T levels (initially at night) are the hormonal signals that also indicate the onset of puberty (1,8). Growth, virilization, and psychological adjustment are evaluated clinically during androgen-replacement therapy. Severe emotional and psychological distress in affected boys and their families makes earlier institution of androgen replacement therapy a prudent choice. It is often difficult to accurately distinguish between simple delayed puberty and hypogonadism. Therefore, only transient androgen therapy is used until permanent hypogonadism is established, which then dictates continuous treatment to induce puberty and maintain sexual function (1,8). In young boys with delayed puberty and also markedly retarded bone age and short stature, excessive androgen treatment causes rapid virilization and increases in long bone growth and also may lead to premature closure of epiphyses, resulting in compromised adult height (1,8).

In boys with simple delayed puberty, gradual replacement therapy with T is usually begun using a 50 or 100 of T enanthate or cypionate intramuscularly monthly (1,8) or 2.5 mg daily of transdermal T. The design of the regimen in boys is to duplicate the changes in T that occur with puberty in normal boys and thus gradual virilization and progression of secondary sexual development. This regimen will stimulate long bone growth and initiate virilization without interfering with the onset of spontaneous puberty. If simple delayed puberty or hypogonadism is diagnosed, the dosage of T ester is increased to 50–100 mg every 2 wk or 2.5 mg of Androderm, nightly for 12 h for approx 6 mo. It is then stopped for 3–6 mo for assessment of the spontaneous onset and progression of puberty. If spontaneous pubertal development and growth do not occur, androgen therapy is reinstituted for another 6 mo with 100 mg of T ester every 2 wk or 2.5 mg of Androderm, daily. This will produce further virilization; full virilization can be achieved over the next few years with full adult replacement doses. Full adult replacement dosages are seldom needed in those with simple delayed puberty.

Adults

In adults with hypogonadism, androgen-replacement therapy is begun by administering a 5 mg delivery dose of a patch or gel system or 200 mg of either T enanthate or cypionate, intramuscularly every 2 wk. Figures 1 and 2 display the fluctuations of serum T concentrations after intramuscular injection of 200 mg of either ester. Injectable T preparations result in T levels at or above the normal range 1–4 d after administration and then gradually fall over the subsequent 2 wk and may be below the normal range before the next injection. Administering 100 mg of T enanthate or cypionate intramuscularly weekly produces a better pattern of T levels, but higher doses at less frequent intervals deviate much more from physiologic normal T range (74,80). Patients, family members, or friends can be taught to give deep intramuscular injections of T esters; otherwise, injections by nursing personnel in the clinic are needed.

The therapeutic efficacy of androgen replacement is assessed by monitoring the patient's clinical and serum T responses (1,8). Variability in response to T therapy in hypogonadal men in libido, potency, sexual activity, feeling of well-being, motivation, energy level, aggressiveness, stamina, and hematocrit is considerable and may occur during the first few weeks to months of androgen-replacement therapy. Body hair,

muscle mass and strength, and bone mass increase over months to years. In a sexually immature, eunuchoidal man, androgen replacement also stimulates development of secondary sexual characteristics and long bone growth. Many months to years may be required to achieve the mature adult status.

If injectable forms of T are used, T levels during therapy should be in the mid-normal range 1 wk after an injection and above the lower limit of the normal range preceding the next injection. In some hypogonadal men treated with T esters, disturbing fluctuations in sexual function, energy level, and mood are associated with fluctuations in serum T concentrations between injections. Thus, some patients may complain of reduced energy level and sexual function a few days before their next T injection and have serum T levels below the eugonadal range at that time. Shortening the dosing interval of T ester administration from every 2 wk to every 10 d is recommended in these patients.

With patch and gel systems, a beginning dose of 5 mg of T is recommended for adults; however, a smaller dose may be appropriate for some elderly men. Therapeutic efficacy of patch and gel systems can be monitored by measurement of serum T concentrations about 12 h after application and continued daily for 7–14 d. If levels are not in the eugonadal range, then the dose should be adjusted. Men who have been hypogonadal for prolonged intervals may experience alarming changes in sexual desire and function, which may cause stress in a sexual relationship (1,8). Counseling of patients and their partners before beginning androgen replacement is recommended to help reduce or alleviate these adjustment problems. Beginning with a lower replacement dose may be wise, particularly in an elderly hypogonadal man.

As discussed in detail elsewhere, men with prepubertal hypogonadotropic hypogonadism require the combined treatment with hCG plus human menopausal gonadotropins to initiate sperm production and fertility (refer to Chapter 24). In those with a selective deficiency of GnRH, such as Kallmann's syndrome, pulsatile GnRH therapy has been shown to stimulate T production and spermatogenesis.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by grants DK-45760, DK-43344, and RR-00064 from the National Institute of Health USPHS and Department of Internal Medicine and Pathology funds.

REFERENCES

- 1. Santen RJ. Testis: function and dysfunction. In: Yen SSC, Jaffe RB, Barbieri RL, eds. Reproductive Endocrinology. Saunders, Philadelphia, 1999, pp. 632–668.
- 2. Korenman SG. Androgen function after age 50 years and treatment of hypogonadism. Curr Ther Endocrinol Metab 1994;5:585-587.
- 3. Korenman S, Morley J, Mooradian A, et al. Secondary hypogonadism in older men: its relation to impotence. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1990;71:963–969.
- 4. Mastrogiacomo I, Feghali G, Foresta C, Ruzza G. Andropause: incidence and pathogenesis. Arch Androl 1982;9:293-296.
- 5. Vermeulen A, Kaufman JM. Ageing of the hypothalamo-pituitary-testicular axis in men. Horm Res 1995;43:25-28.
- 6. Ou Y, Hwang T, Yang C, et al. Hormonal screening in impotent patients. J Formos Med Assoc 1991;90:560-564.
- 7. Wortsman J, Rosner W, Dufau M. Abnormal testicular function in men with primary hypothyroidism. Am J Med 1987;82:207-212.
- 8. Griffin JE, Wilson JD. Disorders of the testes and male reproductive tract. In: Wilson JD, Foster DW, eds. William's Textbook of Endocrinology. Saunders, Philadelphia, 1998, pp. 819–875.

- 9. Nielsen J, Wohlert M. Chromosome abnormalities found among 34,910 newborn children: results from a 13-year incidence study in Arhus, Denmark. Hum Genet 1991;87:81-83.
- 10. Tunte W, Niermann H. Incidence of Klinefelter's syndrome and seasonal variation. Lancet 1968;1:641.
- 11. Luciani J, Guichaoua M. Chromosome abnormalities in male infertility. Ann Biol Clin (Paris) 1985;43:71–74.
- 12. Morley JE, Kaiser FE, Perry HM, 3rd, et al. Longitudinal changes in testosterone, luteinizing hormone, and follicle- stimulating hormone in healthy older men. Metabolism 1997;46:410-413.
- 13. Tenover JL. Testosterone and the aging male. J Androl 1997;18:103-106.
- 14. Harman SM, Metter EJ, Tobin JD, Pearson J, Blackman MR. Longitudinal effects of aging on serum total and free testosterone levels in healthy men. Baltimore Longitudinal Study of Aging. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2001;86:724-731.
- 15. McClure RD. Endocrine investigation and therapy. Urol Clin North Am 1987;14:471-88.
- 16. Huang CC, Huang HS. Successful treatment of male infertility due to hypogonadotropic hypogonadism—report of three cases. Chang Keng I Hsueh 1994;17:78-84.
- 17. Nachtigall LB, Boepple PA, Pralong FP, Crowley WF, Jr. Adult-onset idiopathic hypogonadotropic hypogonadism—a treatable form of male infertility. N Engl J Med 1997;336:410–415.
- 18. Nachtigall LB, Boepple PA, Seminara SB, et al. Inhibin B secretion in males with gonadotropinreleasing hormone (GnRH) deficiency before and during long-term GnRH replacement: relationship to spontaneous puberty, testicular volume, and prior treatment—a clinical research center study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1996;81:3520-3525.
- 19. Seminara SB, Boepple PA, Nachtigall LB, et al. Inhibin B in males with gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) deficiency: changes in serum concentration after shortterm physiologic GnRH replacement—a clinical research center study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1996;81:3692-3696.
- 20. Anawalt BD, Bebb RA, Matsumoto AM, et al. Serum inhibin B levels reflect Sertoli cell function in normal men and men with testicular dysfunction. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1996;81:3341-3345.
- 21. McLachlan RI, Finkel DM, Bremner WJ, Snyder PJ. Serum inhibin concentrations before and during gonadotropin treatment in men with hypogonadotropic hypogonadism: physiological and clinical implications. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1990;70:1414-1419.
- 22. MacDonald PC, Wilson JD. Familial incomplete male pseudohermaphroditism, type 2. N Engl J Med 1974;291:944–949.
- 23. Walsh PC, Harrod MJ, Goldstein JL, MacDonald PC, Wilson JD. Familial incomplete male pseudohermaphroditism, type 2, decreased dihydrotestosterone formation in pseudovaginal perine-oscrotal hypospadias. N Engl J Med 1974;291:944-949.
- 24. Imperato-McGinley J, Peterson RE, Gantier T, et al. Hormonal evaluation of a large kindred with complete androgen insensitivity: evidence of a secondary 5 alpha-reductase deficiency. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1982;54:931-941.
- 25. Meikle AW, Mazer NA, Moellmer JF, et al. Enhanced transdermal delivery of testosterone across nonscrotal skin produces physiological concentrations of testosterone and its metabolites in hypogonadal men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1992;74:623-628.
- 26. Meikle AW, Arver S, Dobs AS, Sanders SW, Rajaram L, Mazer NA. Pharmacokinetics and metabolism of a permeation-enhanced testosterone transdermal system in hypogonadal men: influence of application site—a clinical research center study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1996;81:1832–1840.
- Matsumoto AM. Clinical use and abuse of androgens and antiandrogens. In: Becker KL, ed. Priniciples and Practice of Endocrinology and Metabolism. J.B. Lippincott, Philadelphia, 1995, pp. 1110-1122.
- 28. Matsumoto AM. Hormonal therapy of male hypogonadism. Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am 1994;23:857-875.
- 29. Cantrill J, Dewis P, Large D, Newman M, Anderson D. Which testosterone replacement therapy? Clin Endocrinol (Oxf) 1984;21:97-107.
- 30. Berthold A. Transplantation der Hoed. Archiv fur Anatomie, Physiologie und wissenschaftliche Medicin, Berlin 1849:42-46.

- 31. Butenandt A. Über die chemische Untersuchung des Sexualhomons. A angew Chem 1931;44:905-908.
- 32. David k, Dingermanse E, Freud J, Laqure E. Uber krystallinisches mannliches Hormon aus Hoden (Testosteron), wirksamer als aus Harn oder aus Cholesterin bereitetes Androsteron. Hoppe-Seyler's Z physiol Chem 1935;233:281,282.
- 33. Butenandt A, Hanisch G. Uber Testosteron, Umwandlung des Dehydro-androsterons in Androstendiol und Testosteron; ein Weg zur Darstellung des Testosterons aus Cholesterin. Hoppe-seyler's Z Physiol Chem 1935;237:89–98.
- 34. Ruzick L, Wettstein A. synthetische Darstellung des Testishormons, Testosteron (androsten 3-on-1701). Helv chim Acta 1935;18:1264-1275.
- 35. Nieschlag E, Behre HM. Pharmacology and clinical uses of testosterone. In: Nieschlag E, Behre HM, eds. Testosterone: Action, Seficiency, Substitution. Springer-Verlag, New York, 1990, pp. 92–108.
- 36. Daggett P, Wheeler M, Nabarro J. Oral testosterone, a reappraisal. Horm Res 1978;9:121-129.
- 37. Johnsen S, Bennett E, Jensen V. Therapeutic effectiveness of oral testosterone. Lancet 1974;2:1473–1475.
- 38. Nieschlag E, Hoogen H, Bolk M, Schuster H, Wickings E. Clinical trial with testosterone undecanoate for male fertility control. Contraception 1978;18:607-614.
- 39. Nieschlag E, Cuppers H, Wickings E. Influence of sex, testicular development and liver function on the bioavailability of oral testosterone. Eur J Clin Invest 1977;7:145-147.
- 40. Alkalay D, Khemani L, Wagner WE J, Bartlett M. Sublingual and oral administration of methyltestosterone. A comparison of drug bioavailability. J Clin Pharmacol New Drugs 1973;13:142-151.
- 41. Lie J. Pulmonary peliosis. Arch Pathol Lab Med 1985;109:878,879.
- 42. Westaby D, Ogle S, Paradinas F, Randell J, Murray-Lyon I. Liver damage from long-term methylt-estosterone. Lancet 1977;2:262,263.
- 43. Paradinas F, Bull T, Westaby D, Murray-Lyon I. Hyperplasia and prolapse of hepatocytes into hepatic veins during longterm methyltestosterone therapy: possible relationships of these changes to the development of peliosis hepatis and liver tumours. Histopathology 1977;1:225-246.
- 44. Pezold F. Anabolic hormones in chronic hepatitis. Oral therapy with 1 alpha, 17 alpha-bis(acetylthio)-17 alpha-methyltestosterone. Munch Med Wochenschr 1968;110:2663–2668.
- 45. Doerr P, Pirke K. Regulation of plasma oestrogens in normal adult males. I. Response of oestradiol, oestrone and testosterone to HCG and fluoxymesterone administration. Acta Endocrinol (Copenh) 1974;75:617-624.
- 46. Jones TM, Fang VS, Landau rL, Rosenfield RL. The effects of fluoxymesterone administration on testicular function. Clin Endocrinol Metab 1977;43:121–129.
- 47. Nadell J, Kosek J. Peliosis hepatis. Twelve cases associated with oral androgen therapy. Arch Pathol Lab Med 1977;101:405–410.
- 48. Kovary P, Lenau H, Niermann H, Zierden E, Wagner H. Testosterone levels and gonadotrophins in Klinefelter's patients treated with injections of mesterolone cipionate. Arch Dermatol Res 1977;258:289-294.
- 49. Wang C, Chan C, Wong K, Yeung K. Comparison of the effectiveness of placebo, clomiphene citrate, mesterolone, pentoxifylline, and testosterone rebound therapy for the treatment of idiopathic oligospermia. Fertil Steril 1983;40:358–365.
- 50. Ros A. Our experience with mesterolone therapy. Evaluation of 22 hormonal steroids constituting the gas chromatographic picture in the total neutral urinary fraction. The effectiveness of mesterolone in the therapy of oligoastenospermias. Attual Ostet Ginecol 1969;15:37-53.
- 51. Gerhards E, Nieuweboer B, Richter E. On the alkyl-substituted steroids. V. Testosterone excretion in man after oral administration of lalpha-methyl-5alpha-androstane-17beta ol-3-one(mesterolone) and 17-alpha-methyl-androst-4-en-17beta-ol-3-one (17 alpha-methyltestosterone). Arzneimittelforschung 1969;19:765,766.
- 52. Komatsu Y, Tomoyoshi T, Okada K. Clinical experiences with mesterolone, an orally administered androgen, in male urology. Hinyokika Kiyo 1969;15:663-669.
- 53. Aakvaag A, Stromme S. The effect of mesterolone administration to normal men on the pituitary testicular function. Acta Endocrinol (Copenh) 1974;77:380–386.
- 54. Schurmeyer T, Wickings E, Freischem C, Nieschlag E. Saliva and serum testosterone following oral testosterone undecanoate administration in normal and hypogonadal men. Acta Endocrinol (Copenh) 1983;102:456-462.
- 55. Tauber U, Schroder K, Dusterberg B, Matthes H. Absolute bioavailability of testosterone after oral administration of testosterone-undecanoate and testosterone. Eur J Drug Metab Pharmacokinet 1986;11:145-149.

- 56. Luisi M, Franchi F. Double-blind group comparative study of testosterone undecanoate and mesterolone in hypogonadal male patients. J Endocrinol Invest 1980;3:305-308.
- 57. Maisey N, Bingham J, Marks V, English J, Chakraborty J. Clinical efficacy of testosterone undecanoate in male hypogonadism. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf) 1981;14:625-629.
- 58. Tax L. Absolute bioavailability of testosterone after oral administration of testosterone-undecanoate and testosterone (letter). Eur J Drug Metab Pharmacokinet 1987;12:225,226.
- 59. Gooren L. Long-term safety of the oral androgen testosterone undecanoate. Int J Androl 1986;9:21-26.
- 60. Frey H, Aakvaag A, Saanum D, Falch J. Bioavailability of oral testosterone in males. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 1979;16:345-349.
- 61. Coert A, Geelen J, de Visser J, van der Vies J. The pharmacology and metabolism of testosterone undecanoate (TU), a new orally active androgen. Acta Endocrinol (Copenh) 1975;79:789-800.
- 62. Nieschlag E, Mauss J, Coert A, Kicovic P. Plasma androgen levels in men after oral administration of testosterone or testosterone undecanoate. Acta Endocrinol (Copenh) 1975;79:366-374.
- 63. Skakkebaek N, Bancroft J, Davidson D, Warner P. Androgen replacement with oral testosterone undecanoate in hypogonadal men: a double blind controlled study. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf) 1981;14:49-61.
- 64. Conway A, Boylan L, Howe C, Ross G, Handelsman D. Randomized clinical trial of testosterone replacement therapy in hypogonadal men. Int J Androl 1988;11:247-264.
- 65. Salehian B, Wang C, Alexander G, et al. Pharmacokinetics, bioefficacy, and safety of sublingual testosterone cyclodextrin in hypogonadal men: comparison to testosterone enanthate—a clinical research center study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1995;80:3567-3575.
- 66. Stuenkel CA, Dudley RE, Yen SS. Sublingual administration of testosterone-hydroxypropyl-beta-cyclodextrin inclusion complex simulates episodic androgen release in hypogonadal men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1991;72:1054-1059.
- 67. Wang C, Eyre DR, Clark R, et al. Sublingual testosterone replacement improves muscle mass and strength, decreases bone resorption, and increases bone formation markers in hypogonadal men—a clinical research center study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1996;81:3654–3662.
- 68. Wang C, Alexander G, Berman N, et al. Testosterone replacement therapy improves mood in hypogonadal men—a clinical research center study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1996;81:3578-3583.
- 69. Pitha J, Anaissie E, Uekama K. gamma-Cyclodextrin:testosterone complex suitable for sublingual administration. J Pharm Sci 1987;76:788-790.
- 70. Junkmann K. Long-acting steroids in reproduction. Recent Prog Horm Res. 1957;13:389-419.
- 71. Fujioka M, Shinohara Y, Baba S, Irie M, Inoue K. Pharmacokinetic properties of testosterone propionate in normal men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1986;63:1361-1364.
- 72. Nieschlag E, Cuppers H, Wiegelmann W, Wickings E. Bioavailability and LH-suppressing effect of different testosterone preparations in normal and hypogonadal men. Horm Res 1976;7:138-145.
- 73. Nankin H. Hormone kinetics after intramuscular testosterone cypionate. Fertil Steril 1987;47:1004–1009.
- 74. Behre HM, Oberpenning F, Nieschlag E. Comparative pharmacokinetics of testosterone preparations: application of computer analysis and simulation. In: Nieschlag E, Behre HM, eds. Testosterone: Action, Deficiency, Substitution. Springer-Verlag, New York, 1990, pp. 115–134.
- 75. Schulte-Beerbuhl M, Nieschlag E. Comparison of testosterone, dihydrotestosterone, luteinizing hormone, and follicle-stimulating hormone in serum after injection of testosterone enanthate of testosterone cypionate. Fertil Steril 1980;33:201-203.
- 76. Schurmeyer T, Nieschlag E. Comparative pharmacokinetics of testosterone enanthate and testosterone cyclohexanecarboxylate as assessed by serum and salivary testosterone levels in normal men. Int J Androl 1984;7:181-187.
- 77. Behre HM, Nieschlag E. Testosterone buciclate (20 Aet-1) in hypogonadal men: pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of the new long-acting androgen ester. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1992;75:1204-1210.
- 78. Knuth U, Behre H, Belkien L, Bents H, Nieschlag E. Clinical trial of 19-nortestosterone-hexoxyphenylpropionate (Anadur) for male fertility regulation. Fertil Steril 1985;44:814-821.
- 79. Belkien L, Schurmeyer T, Hano R, Gunnarsson P, Nieschlag E. Pharmacokinetics of 19nortestosterone esters in normal men. J Steroid Biochem 1985;22:623-629.
- Snyder PJ, Lawrence DA. Treatment of male hypogonadism with testosterone enanthate. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1980;51:1335-1339.
- 81. Demisch K, Nickelsen T. Distribution of testosterone in plasma proteins during replacement therapy with testosterone enanthate in patients suffering from hypogonadism. Andrologia 1983;15:536-541.

- 82. Nieschlag E, Buchter D, Von Eckardstein S, Abshagen K, Simoni M, Behre HM. Repeated intramuscular injections of testosterone undecanoate for substitution therapy in hypogonadal men. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf) 1999;51:757-763.
- 83. Zhang GY, Gu YQ, Wang XH, Cui YG, Bremner WJ. A pharmacokinetic study of injectable test-osterone undecanoate in hypogonadal men. J Androl 1998;19:761-768.
- 84. Handelsman D, Conway A, Boylan L. Suppression of human spermatogenesis by testosterone implants. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1992;75:1326-1332.
- 85. Handelsman DJ, Conway AJ, Boylan LM. Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of testosterone pellets in man. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1990;71:216–222.
- 86. Handelsman DJ. Androgen delivery systems: testosterone pellet implants. In: Bhasin S, HL Gabelnick, JM Spieler, RS Swerdloff, C Wang, ed. Pharmacology, Biology and Clinical Applications of Androgens. Wiley-Liss, New York, 1996, pp. 459-469.
- 87. Jockenhovel F, Vogel E, Kreutzer M, Reinhardt W, Lederbogen S, Reinwein D. Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of subcutaneous testosterone implants in hypogonadal men. Clin Endocrinol Oxf 1996;45:61-71.
- 88. Choi S, Kim D, de Lingnieres B. Transdermal dihydrotestosterone therapy and its effects on patients with microphallus. J Urol. 1993;150:657-660.
- 89. Cutter CB. Compounded percutaneous testosterone gel: use and effects in hypogonadal men. J Am Board Fam Pract 2001;14:22–32.
- 90. Chemana D, Morville R, Fiet J, et al. Percutaneous absorption of 5 alpha-dihydrotestosterone in man. II. Percutaneous administration of 5 alpha-dihydrotestosterone in hypogonadal men with idiopathic haemochromatosis; clinical, metabolic and hormonal effectiveness. Int J Androl 1982;5:595–606.
- 91. Kuhn J, Laudat M, Roca R, Dugue M, Luton J, Bricaire H. Gynecomastia: effect of prolonged treatment with dihydrotestosterone by the percutaneous route. Presse Med 1983;12:21-25.
- 92. Schaison G, Nahoul K, Couzinet B. Percutaneous dihydrotestosterone (DHT) treatment. In: Nieschlag E, Behre HM, eds. Testosterone: Action, Deficiency, Substitution. Springer-Verlag, New York, 1990, pp. 155-164.
- 93. Vermeulen A, Deslypere J. Long-term transdermal dihydrotestosterone therapy: effects on pituitary gonadal axis and plasma lipoproteins. Maturitas 1985;7:281-287.
- 94. De Lignieres B. Transdermal dihydrotestosterone treatment of 'andropause'. Ann Med 1993;25:235-241.
- 95. Place VA, Atkinson L, Prather DA, Trunell N, Yates FE. Transdermal testosterone replacement through genital skin. In: Nieschlag E, Behre HM, eds. Testosterone: Action, Deficiency, Substitution. Springer-Verlag, New York, 1990, pp. 165-180.
- 96. Ahmed SR, Boucher AE, Manni A, Santen RJ, Bartholomew M, Demers LM. Transdermal testosterone therapy in the treatment of male hypogonadism. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1988;66:546-551.
- 97. Bals-Pratsch M, Knuth UA, Yoon YD, Nieschlag E. Transdermal testosterone substitution therapy for male hypogonadism. Lancet 1986;2:943-946.
- 98. Cunningham GR, Cordero E, Thornby JI. Testosterone replacement with transdermal therapeutic systems. Physiological serum testosterone and elevated dihydrotestosterone levels. JAMA 1989;261:2525-2530.
- 99. Findlay JC, Place V, Snyder PJ. Treatment of primary hypogonadism in men by the transdermal administration of testosterone. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1989;68:369-373.
- Carey PO, Howards SS, Vance ML. Transdermal testosterone treatment of hypogonadal men. J Urol 1988;140:76–89.
- 101. Findlay JC, Place VA, Snyder PJ. Transdermal delivery of testosterone. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1987;64:266-268.
- 102. Meikle AW, CardosaDeSousa JC, Dacosta N, Bishop DK, Samlowski WE. Direct and indirect effects of Murine Interleukin-2, Gamma interferon, and tumor necrosis factor on Testosterone synthesis in mouse leydig cells. J Androl 1992;13:1-7.
- 103. Meikle AW, Arver S, Dobs AS, Sanders SW, Mazer NA. Androderm: a permeation enhanced non-scrotal testosterone transdermal system for the treatment of male hypogonadism. In: Bhasin S, HL Gabelnick, JM Spieler, RS Swerdloff, C Wang, ed. Pharmacology, Biology and Clinical Applications of Androgens. Wiley-Liss, New York, 1996.
- 104. Arver S, Dobs AS, Meikle AW, Allen RP, Sanders SW, Mazer NA. Improvement of sexual function in testosterone deficient men treated for 1 year with a permeation enhanced testosterone transdermal system. J Urol 1996;155:1604-1608.
- 105. Meikle AW, Annand D, Hunter C, et al. Pre-treatment with a topical corticosteroid cream improves local tolerability and does not significantly alter the pharmacokinetics of the androderm testosterone transdermal system in hypogonadal men. Endocrine Soc 1997;79:P01-322.

- 106. Wilson DE, Kaidbey K, Boike SC, Jorkasky DK. Use of topical corticosteroid cream in the pretreatment of skin reacions associated with Androderm testosterone transdermal system. Endocrine Soc 1997;79:P01-323.
- 107. Wang C, Berman N, Longstreth JA, et al. Pharmacokinetics of transdermal testosterone gel in hypogonadal men: application of gel at one site versus four sites: a General Clinical Research Center Study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2000;85:964-969.
- 108. Finkel D, Phillips J, Snyder P. Stimulation of spermatogenesis by gonadotropins in men with hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. N Engl J Med 1985;313:651-655.
- 109. Baker HW, Hudson B. Changes in the pituitary-testicular axis with age. Monogr Endocrinol 1983;25:71-83.
- 110. Carter HB, Pearson JD, Metter EJ, et al. Longitudinal evaluation of serum androgen levels in men with and without prostate cancer. Prostate 1995;27:25-31.
- 111. Tenover JS, Matsumoto AM, Plymate SR, Bremner WJ. The effects of aging in normal men on bioavailable testosterone and luteinizing hormone secretion: response to clomiphene citrate. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1987;65:1118-1126.
- 112. Nankin HR, Calkins JH. Decreased bioavailable testosterone in aging normal and impotent men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1986;63:1418-1420.
- 113. Bremner WJ, Vitiello MV, Prinz PN. Loss of circadianrhythmicity in blood testosterone levels with aging in normal men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1983;56:1278-1281.
- 114. Wang C, Swedloff RS, Iranmanesh A, et al. Transdermal testosterone gel improves sexual function, mood, muscle strength, and body composition parameters in hypogonadal men. Testosterone Gel Study Group. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2000;85:2839-2853.
- 115. Snyder PJ, Peachey H, Berlin JA, et al. Effects of testosterone replacement in hypogonadal men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2000;85:2670-2677.
- 116. Katznelson L, Finkelstein JS, Schoenfeld DA, Rosenthal DI, Anderson EJ, Klibanski A. Increase in bone density and lean body mass during testosterone administration in men with acquired hypogonadism. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1996;81:4358–4365.
- 117. Bhasin S, Storer TW, Berman N, et al. Testosterone replacement increases fat-free mass and muscle size in hypogonadal men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1997;82:407-413.
- 118. Grinspoon S, Corcoran C, Lee K, et al. Loss of lean body and muscle mass correlates with androgen levels in hypogonadal men with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome and wasting. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1996;81:4051-4058.
- 119. Klein SA, Klauke S, Dobmeyer JM, et al. Substitution of testosterone in a HIV-1 positive patient with hypogonadism and Wasting-syndrome led to a reduced rate of apoptosis. Eur J Med Res 1997;2:30–32.
- 120. Rabkin JG, Rabkin R, Wagner GJ. Testosterone treatment of clinical hypogonadism in patients with HIV/AIDS. Int J STD AIDS 1997;8:537-545.
- 121. Holzman D. Testosterone wasting and AIDS [news]. Mol Med Today 1996;2:93.
- 122. Bhasin S, Javanbakht M. Can androgen therapy replete lean body mass and improve muscle function in wasting associated with human immunodeficiency virus infection? JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr 1999;23:S195-201.
- 123. Sih R, Morley J, Kaiser F, Perry HM, Patrick P, Ross C. Testosterone replacement in older hypogonadal men: a 12-month randomized controlled trial. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1997;82:1661–1667.
- 124. Morales A, Johnston B, Heaton J, Clark A. Oral androgens in the treatment of hypogonadal impotent men. J Urol 1994;152:1115-1118.
- 125. Burris AS, Banks SM, Carter CS, Davidson JM, Sherins RJ. A long-term, prospective study of the physiologic and behavioral effects of hormone replacement in untreated hypogonadal men. J Androl 1992;13:297–304.
- 126. O'Carroll R, Shapiro C, Bancroft J. Androgens, behaviour and nocturnal erection in hypogonadal men: the effects of varying the replacement dose. Clin Endocrinol 1985;23:527-538.
- 127. Hubert W. Psychotropic effects of testosterone. In: Nieschlag E, HM Behre, ed. Testosterone: Action, Deficiency, Substitution. Springer-Verlag, New York, 1990, pp. 51-65.
- 128. Jain P, Rademaker AW, McVary KT. Testosterone supplementation for erectile dysfunction: results of a meta-analysis. J Urol 2000;164:371-375.
- 129. Baumgartner RN, Ross RR, Waters DL, et al. Serum leptin in elderly people: associations with sex hormones, insulin, and adipose tissue volumes. Obes Res 1999;7:141-149.
- 130. Van Den Saffele JK, Goemaere S, De Bacquer D, Kaufman JM. Serum leptin levels in healthy ageing men: are decreased serum testosterone and increased adiposity in elderly men the consequence of leptin deficiency? Clin Endocrinol (Oxf) 1999;51:81-88.
- 131. Jockenhovel F, Blum WF, Vogel E, et al. Testosterone substitution normalizes elevated serum leptin levels in hypogonadal men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1997;82:2510-2513.

- 132. Adan L, Bussieres L, Trivin C, Souberbielle JC, Brauner R. Effect of short-term testosterone treatment on leptin concentrations in boys with pubertal delay. Horm Res 1999;52:109-112.
- 133. Soderberg S, Olsson T, Eliasson M, et al. A strong association between biologically active testosterone and leptin in non-obese men and women is lost with increasing (central) adiposity. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord 2001;25:98-105.
- 134. Krabbe S, Christiansen C. Longitudinal study of calcium metabolism in male puberty. I. Bone mineral content, and serum levels of alkaline phosphatase, phosphate and calcium. Acta Paediatr Scand 1984;73:745–749.
- 135. Bonjour J, Theintz G, Buchs B, Slosman D, Rizzoli R. Critical years and stages of puberty for spinal and femoral bone mass accumulation during adolescence. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1991;73:555–563.
- 136. Scane AC, Sutcliffe AM, Francis RM. Osteoporosis in men. Baillieres Clin Rheumatol 1993;7:589-601.
- 137. Stepan JJ, Lachman M, Zverina J, Pacovsky V, Baylink DJ. Castrated men exhibit bone loss: effect of calcitonin treatment on biochemical indices of bone remodeling. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1989;69:523-527.
- 138. Goldray D, Weisman Y, Jaccard N, Merdler C, Chen J, Matzkin H. Decreased bone density in elderly men treated with the gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonist decapeptyl (D-Trp6-GnRH). J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1993;76:288–290.
- 139. Baillie S, Davison C, Johnson F, Francis R. Pathogenesis of vertebral crush fractures in men. Age Ageing 1992;21:139-141.
- 140. Halbreich U, Palter S. Accelerated osteoporosis in psychiatric patients: possible pathophysiological processes. Schizophr Bull 1996;22:447–454.
- 141. Halbreich U, Rojansky N, Palter S, et al. Decreased bone mineral density in medicated psychiatric patients. Psychosom Med 1995;57:485-491.
- 142. Keely E, Reiss J, Drinkwater D, Faiman C. Bone mineral density, sex hormones, and long-term use of neuroleptic agents in mem. Endocr Pract. 1997;3:209-213.
- 143. Seeman E, Melton LJd, WM OF, Riggs BL. Risk factors for spinal osteoporosis in men. Am J Med 1983;75:977-983.
- 144. Seeman E. The dilemma of osteoporosis in men. Am J Med 1995;98:76s-88s.
- 145. Finkelstein JS, Klibanski A, Neer RM, Greenspan SL, Rosenthal DI, Crowley WF, Jr. Osteoporosis in men with idiopathic hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. Ann Intern Med 1987;106:354–361.
- 146. Finkelstein JS, Klibanski A, Neer RM, et al. Increases in bone density during treatment of men with idiopathic hypogonadotropic hypogonadism. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1989;69:776–783.
- 147. Finkelstein JS, Neer RM, Biller BM, Crawford JD, Klibanski A. Osteopenia in men with a history of delayed puberty. N Engl J Med 1992;326:600-604.
- 148. Kuhn JM, Gay D, Lemercier JP, Pugeat M, Legrand A, Wolf LM. Testicular function during prolonged corticotherapy. Presse Med 1986;15:559-562.
- 149. Lukert BP. Glucocorticoid-induced osteoporosis. South Med J 1992;85:48-51.
- 150. Reid IR, Veale AG, France JT. Glucocorticoid osteoporosis. J Asthma 1994;31:7-18.
- 151. MacAdams MR, White RH, Chipps BE. Reduction of serum testosterone levels during chronic glucocorticoid therapy. Ann Intern Med 1986;104:648-651.
- 152. Praet JP, Peretz A, Rozenberg S, Famaey JP, Bourdoux P. Risk of osteoporosis in men with chronic bronchitis. Osteoporos Int 1992;2:257-261.
- 153. Behre HM, Kliesch S, Leifke E, Link TM, Nieschlag E. Long-term effect of testosterone therapy on bone mineral density in hypogonadal men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 1997;82:2386–2390.
- 154. Wang C, Swerdloff RS, Iranmanesh A, et al. Effects of transdermal testosterone gel on bone turnover markers and bone mineral density in hypogonadal men. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf) 2001;54:739–750.
- 155. Katznelson L, Finkelstein J, Baressi C, Klibanski A. Increase in trabecular bone density and altered body composition in androgen replaced hypogonadal men. Endocrine Soc 1994;75:1524A.
- 156. Matzkin H, Chen J, Weisman Y, et al. Prolonged treatment with finasteride (a 5 alpha-reductase inhibitor) does not affect bone density and metabolism. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf.) 1992;37:432-436.
- 157. Pederson L, Kremer M, Foged N, et al. Evidence of a correlation of estrogen receptor level and avian osteoclast estrogen responsiveness. J Bone Miner Res 1997;12:742-752.
- 158. McDonnell D, Norris J. Analysis of the molecular pharmacology of estrogen receptor agonists and antagonists provides insights into the mechanism of action of estrogen in bone. Osteoporos Int 1997;7:S29-34.
- 159. Hoyland J, Mee A, Baird P, Braidman I, Mawer E, Freemont A. Demonstration of estrogen receptor mRNA in bone using in situ reverse-transcriptase polymerase chain reaction. Bone 1997;20:87–92.
- 160. Grese T, Cho S, Finley D, et al. Structure-activity relationships of selective estrogen receptor modulators: modifications to the 2-arylbenzothiophene core of raloxifene. J Med Chem 1997;40:146–167.
- 161. Fiorelli G, Gori F, Frediani U, et al. Membrane binding sites and non-genomic effects of estrogen in cultured human pre-osteoclastic cells. J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol 1996;59:233-240.

- 162. Kobayashi S, Inoue S, Hosoi T, Ouchi Y, Shiraki M, Orimo H. Association of bone mineral density with polymorphism of the estrogen receptor gene. J Bone Miner Res 1996;11:306-311.
- 163. Frolik C, Bryant H, Black E, Magee D, Chandrasekhar S. Time-dependent changes in biochemical bone markers and serum cholesterol in ovariectomized rats: effects of raloxifene HCl, tamoxifen, estrogen, and alendronate. Bone 1996;18:621-627.
- 164. Mano H, Yuasa T, Kameda T, et al. Mammalian mature osteoclasts as estrogen target cells. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 1996;223:637-642.
- 165. Smith EP, Boyd J, Frank GR, et al. Estrogen resistance caused by a mutation in the estrogen-receptor gene in a man (see comments) (published erratum appears in N Engl J Med 1995 Jan 12;332:131). N Engl J Med 1994;331:1056-1061.
- 166. Greenspan SL, Neer RM, Ridgeway EC, Klibanski A. Osteoporosis in men with hyperprolactinemic hypogonadism. Ann Intern Med 1986;104:777-782.
- 167. Tenover J. Androgen therapy in aging men. In: Bhasin S, Galelnick H, Spieler J, swerdloff R, Wang C, eds. Pharmacology, Biology, and Clinical Applications of Androgens. Wiley-Liss, New York, 1996, pp. 309-318.
- 168. Arver S, Meikle AW, Dobs AS, Sanders S, Mazer NA. Hypogonadal men treated with the Androderm testosterone transdermal system had fewer abnormal hematocrit elevations than those treated with testosterone enanthate injections. Endocrine Soc. 1997;79:P01-327.
- 169. Matsumoto AM, Sandblom RE, Schoene RB, et al. Testosterone replacement in hypogonadal men: effects on obstructive sleep apnoea, respiratory drives, and sleep. Clin Endocrinol 1985;22:713-721.
- 170. Schneider BK, Pickett CK, Zwillich CW, et al. Influence of testosterone on breathing during sleep. J Appl Physiol 1986;61:618-623.
- 171. Bagatell CJ, Bremner WJ. Androgen and progestagen effects on plasma lipids. Prog Cardiovasc Dis 1995;38:255-271.
- 172. Bagatell CJ, Heiman JR, Matsumoto AM, Rivier JE, Bremner WJ. Metabolic and behavioral effects of high-dose, exogenous testosterone in healthy men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1994;79:561-567.
- 173. Bagatell CJ, Knopp RH, Rivier JE, Bremner WJ. Physiological levels of estradiol stimulate plasma high density lipoprotein2 cholesterol levels in normal men. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1994;78:855-861.
- Bagatell CJ, Knopp RH, Vale WW, Rivier JE, Bremner WJ. Physiologic testosterone levels in normal men suppress high-density lipoprotein cholesterol levels. Ann Intern Med 1992;116:967-973.
- 175. Dobs AS, Bachorik PS, Arver S, et al. Interrelationships among lipoprotein levels, sex hormones, anthropometric parameters, and age in hypogonadal men treated for 1 year with a permeationenhanced testosterone transdermal system. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2001;86:1026-1033.
- 176. Goldberg RB, Rabin D, Alexander AN, Doelle GC, Getz GS. Suppression of plasma testosterone leads to an increase in serum total and high density lipoprotein cholesterol and apoproteins A-1 and B. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1985;60:203-207.
- 177. Byerley L, Lee WN, Swerdloff RS, et al. Effect of modulating serum testosterone levels in the normal male range on protein, carbohydrate, and lipid metabolism in men: implications for testosterone replacement therapy. Endocrine J 1993;1:253-262.
- 178. Mooradian AD, Morley JE, Korenman SG. Biological actions of androgens. Endocr Rev 1987;8:1-28.
- 178. Zgliczynski S, Ossowski M, Slowinska-Srzednicka J, et al. Effect of testosterone replacement therapy on lipids and lipoproteins in hypogonadal and elderly men. Atherosclerosis 1996;121:35-43.
- 180. Rabijewski M, Adamkiewicz M, Zgliczynski S. [The influence of testosterone replacement therapy on well-being, bone mineral density and lipids in elderly men]. Pol Arch Med Wewn 1998;100:212-221.
- 181. Hromadova M, Hacik T, Malatinsky E, Sklovsky A, Cervenakov I. Some measures of lipid metabolism in young sterile males before and after testosterone treatment. Endocrinol Exp 1989;23:205-211.
- 182. Friedl K, Hannan CJ J, Jones R, Plymate S. High-density lipoprotein cholesterol is not decreased if an aromatizable androgen is administered. Metabolism 1990;39:69-74.
- 183. Meikle AW, Stephenson RA, McWhorter WP, Skolnick MH, Middleton RG. Effects of age, sex steroids, and family relationships on volumes of prostate zones in men with and without prostate cancer. Prostate 1995;26:253-259.
- 184. Meikle AW. Endocrinology of the prostate and of benign prostate prostatic hyperplasia. In: Degroot LJ, ed. Endocrinology, 3rd ed. Saunders, Philadelphia, 1995, pp. 2459-2473.
- 185. Meikle AW, Arver S, Dobs AS, et al. Prostate size in hypogonadal men treated with a nonscrotal permeation-enhanced testosterone transdermal system. Urology 1997;49:191-196.
- 186. Meikle AW, Stephenson RA, Lewis CM, Middleton RG. Effects of age and sex hormones on transition and peripheral zone volumes of prostate and benign prostatic hyperplasia in twins. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1997;82:571-575.

- 187. Behre HM, Bohmeyer J, Nieschlag E. Prostate volume in testosterone-treated and untreated hypogonadal men in comparison to age-matched normal controls. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf) 1994;40:341-349.
- 188. Jin B, Conway AJ, Handelsman DJ. Effects of androgen deficiency and replacement on prostate zonal volumes. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf) 2001;54:437-445.
- 189. Meikle AW, Bansal A, Murray DK, Stephenson RA, Middleton RG. Heritability of the symptoms of benign prostatic hyperplasia and the roles of age and zonal prostate volumes in twins. Urology 1999;53:701-706.
- 190. McWhorter WP, Hernandez AD, Meikle AW, et al. A screening study of prostate cancer in high risk families. J Urol 1992;148:826-828.
- 191. Meikle AW, Smith J. Epidemiology of prostate cancer. Urol Clin North Am 1990;17:709-718.